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ABSTRACT

This quarterly publication serves as a medium for the exchange of ideas regarding the planning, design, implementation, and evaluation of professional development practices at two- and four-year colleges. The four issues in volume 14 feature the following articles: (1) "A Home-Grown Faculty Development Program," (Jane T. Rauton); (2) "Creating Interdisciplinary Courses: The Agonies and the Ecstasies," (Eleanor Whalen Carducci, Heather Pfleger Dunham, Ginny Hencken Elsasser, Barbara Jayne Lewthwaite); (3) "Encouraging Excellence and Diversity," (Walter Wendler, Ward Wells, Shannon Van Zandt); (4) "Faculty Development through Auditing," (Joan M. Hofmann); (5) "Understanding and Using Teaching Portfolios: An Administrator's Perspective," (John P. Murray); (6) "Perceptions of Department Chairpersons in Higher Education," (Damon A. Revelas); (7) "A Job Description for Instruction: A Foundation for Developing Instructional Behaviors and Evaluation of Performance," (Ronald J. Olsen); (8) "Building Community with Part-Time Faculty," (Melinda Knight, Flora McMartin); (10) "Reshaping Faculty Interaction: Peer Mentoring Groups," (Lynne E. Anderson, John S. Carta-Falsa); (11) "Case Study of a Systematic Approach to Meeting the Needs of New Faculty," (Lesley H. Parker, Alex Radloff, Jennifer Weir, Marjan Zadnik); (12) "Videotaping with a Colleague: Practical Guidelines for Improving Teaching Effectiveness," (Lisa D. Morano, Joan L. Brenchley-Jackson, William E. Davis); (13) "An Assessment of Management Appraisal Systems in Master's (Comprehensive) Colleges and Universities," (John W. Murray, Jr., James O. Hammons); (14) "An Exploratory Study of the Faculty-Developer-Client Relationship," (Christine A. Stanley, M. Erin Porter, Borbala L. Szabo); (15) "Who Gets a Sabbatical?: A Ten Year Study of Sabbatical Application Patterns at the University of Alabama, 1986-1996," (Carl H. Boening, Michael T. Miller); (16) "The Challenge of Videoconferencing: More Than Teacher Training," (Nancy Scovil); (17) "Improving Both GTA and Instructional Developer Effectiveness," (Edwin G. Ralph); (18) "Developing and Maintaining Cultural and Intellectual Enrichment

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By Jane T. Rauton

A Home-Grown Faculty Development Program

Piedmont Technical College's Teaching Improvement Committee developed guidelines, proposed content objectives, and selected faculty mentors who facilitated the certificate course, PTC 102, for all new full-time and adjunct faculty members.

FACULTY INSERVICE training at Piedmont Technical College has been an on-again, off-again institutional priority for the more than twenty years the author has been at the college. Piedmont, one of sixteen technical colleges in the South Carolina system, serves seven rural counties in the upstate. The college enrolls more than 3,000 students in credit courses leading to certificates, diplomas, and associate degree programs.

The faculty at Piedmont Technical College (PTC) who serve on the Teaching Improvement Committee developed and conducted a year-long teaching excellence program for all new full-time and adjunct faculty members. The committee recognized the need for systematically teaching a methodologies course, primarily because more than half of our faculty come from a technical field. In addition, those faculty who do have teaching experience often lack experience teaching adult students. Therefore, many "old" and "new" faculty continue to teach the way they were taught.

Rationale

Current research in teaching and learning repeatedly urges college and university faculty to involve and engage students actively in the process of learning. Chickering and Gamson (1987) suggest that students must do more than just listen, and learning is not a spectator sport (pp. 3-7). Cross and Astin (1987) recommend that students be actively involved in learning (pp. 3-7). In addition, emphasis on learning styles has led to an understanding that students may be more satisfied and more productive if they are studying with methods compatible with their styles; therefore, instructors need to use a variety of teaching activities and strategies to meet a broad range of student learning styles (Davis, 1993, pp. 185-186).

Finally, major changes in the world of work are having a dramatic impact on what is taking place in America's schools. There is increasing emphasis on classroom activities to integrate and develop the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS), while simultaneously teaching course content. With the introduction of Tech Prep in area high schools, students are now coming to PTC having been exposed to a new way of teaching and learning in an applied context that enables them to see the relationship between course content and future roles they may envision for themselves.

In addition, teachers in Tech Prep courses are expected to use collaborative teams. Researchers report that students working in small groups tend to learn more of what is taught and retain it longer than when the same content is presented in other instructional formats (Davis, 1993, p. 147).

Objectives for PTC 102

The committee researched current practice for faculty training, conducted internal

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surveys, and debated faculty teaching needs. After a year of planning, the Teaching Improvement Committee developed PTC 102, The Teaching Excellence Program. The objectives of PTC 102 are:

- To provide information on effective teaching methodology.
- To model effective methodology, especially active learning, in the workshops.
- To acquaint faculty with academic support services available for them and their students.
- To develop a mentoring program that supports and encourages faculty.
- To develop a sense of "community" among faculty members. To provide incentives for faculty to attend the workshop series.

Developing instructors' skills by providing variation to routine lectures was a key goal of the mentors. Use of effective questioning techniques and cooperative learning methods were presented along with suggestions for developing course syllabi and lesson plans that accommodate both adult learners and multiple learning styles. A concern was that faculty needed training in dealing with diversity and complexity particularly in terms of race, gender and students with learning disabilities.

The Teaching Improvement Committee members strongly believe that it is essential for faculty mentors to model effective teaching methods by using a variety of strategies in each module. Workshop leaders could not lecture about how to teach active learning. Therefore, each session leader incorporated team activities, group discussions, and guest speakers.

New faculty and adjunct faculty, especially "part-timers" who teach off-campus courses or in the evening, had limited awareness of the student support services and academic support services available. Services offered through the Student Success Center and the Teaching and Learning Center, such as tutoring, make-up testing, and the computer- assisted instructional lab available for both faculty and students, needed to be presented.

Mentors

Mentors were selected by the committee and recommended to the vice president for educational affairs and deans. The selection criteria were based on documented exemplary teaching experience, demonstrated commitment to faculty growth and development, and proven leadership skills as evidenced by college and community service. Mentors were not specifically assigned to individuals during the first year; the faculty members who worked in close proximity naturally gravitated toward each other. A more formal mentor relationship will be established in the coming year with an assigned mentor for each new faculty member.

Mentors were required to develop the modules around the content objectives identified by the committee. They then conducted the full eight-hour workshop for full-time faculty and a condensed three-hour version for adjunct faculty in the evening. Assignments were sent out to participants prior to the sessions, and homework assignments were made following each session. Mentors followed up homework assignments by providing one-on-one consultation when necessary. For their mentoring roles, the selected faculty were compensated at the equivalent rate of teaching an additional three-hour course. All members of the committee were asked to participate in the series to enable them to become future mentors.

As the college has grown, the faculty has become spread out over an increasingly expanding campus; therefore, a sense of closeness or "community" is more difficult to maintain. Often, faculty members know only members of their own division. With seventy-six full-time faculty members and approximately two-hundred adjunct faculty members teaching on campus, at the local university, two off-campus sites, prison sites, and on evening and weekend schedules, the "esprit de corps" can be improved. The retirement of a large number of faculty resulted in the hiring of many new faculty, creating a complete turnover in some academic departments. Faculty development opportunities that combine good food with good fun go a long way toward promoting unity.

A problem experienced by many faculty development programs is getting people to desire to participate. The committee felt that participation should be voluntary because there is nothing worse for a teacher than to try to work with unwilling, unmotivated students; therefore, to encourage volunteerism,

the committee negotiated with the administration to give one course release to new full-time faculty members who participated. Adjunct faculty members were paid hourly teaching rates for the hours they attended. Also, completers of all four modules were awarded PTC 102 instructional certification, which meant a small hourly pay increase.

Course Outline

After the four modules were developed around the objectives and content, they were arranged in order of priority. The priority was determined by mentors with committee feedback. Certain information needed to be presented early on; other information, while good to know, could wait until later in the year. The current outline follows:

Module 1

Creating the Learning Environment. Setting the tone in the classroom includes tips for getting started, using textbooks effectively, establishing ground rules such as homework policies, and developing general competencies such as team building and communications skills. The nature of learning as a system and developing critical thinking skills is explored.

Module 2

Instructional Planning. Preparation and organization includes identifying course competencies, goals and objectives, determining methods of assessment, sequencing course materials, and integrating technical and general competencies.

Module 3

Teaching Adult Learners. Understanding adult learners, their styles and preferences, and teaching methods to accommodate various learning styles is discovered. Participants assess their individual preferences.

Module 4

Diversity and Complexity. Issues such as race, ethnicity, gender, sexual harassment, and professional ethics are discussed. How to's for teaching academically diverse students, including students with physical and learning disabilities, make up this module.

Textbook Selection

Resources that proved most helpful to the developers were *Tools for Teaching* (Davis, 1993) and *Improving Your Classroom Teaching* (Weimer, 1993), which was selected for the homework textbook. It is available in paperback and is moderately priced, which was important since the college purchased the textbooks for all participants.

Scheduling Workshops

Inservice development work days are set aside between each term for full-time faculty members. The committee decided to conduct the first two modules, "Creating the Learning Environment" and "Instructional Planning," prior to the fall term in August. The third session, "Teaching Adult Learners" was conducted in January prior to the spring term. "Dealing with Diversity and Complexity in the Classroom" was held at the end of the spring term. The sessions for full-time faculty members began at 8:30 A.M. and ended at 3:30 P.M., while the evening program for adjunct faculty lasted from 6 until 9 P.M.

Evaluation

Each session was evaluated by participants, and feedback is constantly being used to improve and refine on-going sessions. This procedure will be followed as plans are made for offering the program next year.

At the conclusion of the series the first year, each completer or "graduate" was asked to give an in-depth critique of what worked and what did not work. Each participant made specific recommendations for future sessions to extend the teaching/learning process.

One year later, the participants were asked for feedback on their experience in the classroom using the techniques. When asked what "worked" they had very specific comments about strategies they had implemented such as establishing ground rules at the beginning of the term so that students know what to expect. The instructional plan-

ning was helpful for organizing course syllabi, but some faculty would like more time in the session devoted to actually writing a syllabus and course guide. One faculty member suggested using groups to present mini-lessons and critique each other. Another suggested that student ambassadors should participate in the module on creating the learning environment and ask them what they "see" as opposed to what we think we do. A suggestion was made that reinforcement should be done yearly or every two years for all faculty, regardless of their years of experience.

The committee was also asked to evaluate both the process and their involvement in the program. A concern was the "lukewarm" support given to the program by some of the faculty department chairs. In addition, the committee reviews all comments and has and will continue to alter future programs and follow-up sessions accordingly. For example, one change was made in the second year in the program for new adjunct faculty. Due to the wide range of teaching expertise in the adjunct faculty, from no experience to decades of teaching, the program is now being offered only to novice teachers or for teachers who had no experience teaching adults. There was some feeling that the stipend for attending was more motivational to the "experienced" faculty than the workshop information.

Process Payoff

The program is referred to as a home-grown faculty development program because it was not a copy or duplicate of another program, nor was it one expert's outline, or the administration's plan. The faculty made all the plans for content, method, and schedule and then made recommendations to the administration. This involvement by the faculty in the process of development, delivery, and follow-up has probably contributed more to the program's success and support than any other factor. The committee has a sense of ownership, which gives them the right to "tinker" with the program as necessary to respond to feedback, needs, and the opinions of present and past participants.

The greatest degree of development or growth has probably been in the mentors. The four of them have indicated that they have grown professionally as a result of their participation. One mentor said simply, "I loved it! I learned a lot, became more involved in the 'whole' school, and met some really nice people!"

As each new faculty group is trained, a sense of unity is developed among them as they share their fears and successes when they get together for their training sessions. The mentor/mentee relationships are not developing as strongly as expected, and the committee continues to look at ways of strengthening those relationships; however, the need may not be as great on small campuses due to natural mentoring that takes place within the departments and divisions.

Future Plans

A concern of the committee that is presently being discussed is how the college, in it's quest for continuous improvement, can use the mentors and the committee to help all faculty improve their teaching. If the purpose of faculty evaluation is to improve the quality of teaching and learning on campus, how do we help our faculty to continuously improve their craft? Are our department chairs, program coordinators, and division deans the appropriate persons to help faculty improve and receive higher evaluations? Besides sending faculty to workshops and conferences, which is both costly and often content specific, how do we give them day to day support for improvement of their classroom teaching effectiveness? The Teaching Improvement Committee does not have all the answers to the questions but will feel the greatest level of satisfaction when faculty are being referred to them by supervisors and other faculty for teaching and learning assistance. The seeds for faculty growth and development have been planted, and given the time to mature and the proper nourishment, will be productive.

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By Eleanor Whalen Carducci, Heather Pfleger Dunham, Ginny Hencken Elsasser, & Barbara Jayne Lewthwaite

Creating Interdisciplinary Courses: The Agonies and the Ecstasies

An interdisciplinary team of faculty share the challenges and rewards of designing and teaching interdisciplinary courses. This article examines issues of administrative commitment and oversight, cross-disciplinary, collaborative faculty effort, and autonomy and academic freedom for the instructor. Creative and enabling methods of instruction are emphasized.

YOU ARE ASKED to create an interdisciplinary course. You are asked to take a risk in which you leave the familiar territory of your academic discipline. You are asked to look at the whole picture, the connections, the interwoven patterns, the related elements. You wonder, "Is it worth the effort?" You ponder, "Will the hard work be fruitful?" We, an interdisciplinary team of faculty who have cooperated to create several types of interdisciplinary courses, will share with you our effort with regard to the creation of these courses. The ensuing sections presented by each of us will clarify aspects of creating interdisciplinary courses. We will portray for you the agonies, as well as the ecstasies, so that you have a realistic picture of such an endeavor. Through this paper, the reader will gain knowledge of the process as well as the product.

Beginning the Process - Heather

I learned through having been involved in the creation of an interdisciplinary course that sufficient time should be accorded to the faculty members involved. This time is essential to the success of the process. Release time or some other form of compensatory time empowers the faculty participants and is a demonstration of the commitment of the administration to the project. It also gives the faculty the luxury of time to allow the development process to proceed at its own pace, and to come into its own.

The course I was a part of developing, Contemporary Global Perspectives, was funded initially through a Department of Higher Education grant. This grant became key to the process, since the college was therefore able to be very generous with release time, and we were able to purchase many materials for review, order literature for the library to support the course, and to bring in consultants to help us weed through the vast amounts of material.

As we went through the process, we as a group experienced many of the agonies and ecstasies that were referred to earlier. One particular agony was the difficulty involved in getting four people from entirely different disciplines, Business, English, History, and Education, to put aside issues of territoriality and effectively brainstorm in order to create a course that transcended territory. We had to arrive at a common ground in deciding what direction the course should take; the major themes and topical areas; the goals and objectives; the reading list. Throughout our efforts, we had to be very aware of not falling

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back on discipline-related preferences. In some cases, this provoked very lively discussion.

What we eventually realized was that this agony had slowly evolved into an ecstasy as we came to consensus on the approach we would use. We began to work as a unit, independent of our disciplines. We reached a point where everyone in the group was in agreement and at the same comfort level regarding the evolution of the course. This was truly the enjoyable stage, as the excitement and enthusiasm grew among us.

One agony that did become apparent was the consultant process. We had eagerly awaited the consultants, who were to provide the clarification we needed. To our chagrin, the consultants didn't play the role we envisioned. They tended to confuse the issues rather than make them more clear. In retrospect, they were perhaps an unwarranted expense both in terms of the consulting fees and in the time spent with them.

Another agony was trying to get the faculty as a whole to buy into the course after we had finished our creation. It was not an easy task to convince the faculty of the merits of the course. What became extremely helpful was the multi-disciplinary mix of our group, as we were able to lobby within factions to elicit support.

A final ecstasy was in finding common bonds with colleagues from other disciplines; in establishing friendships and an enhanced level of mutual respect. We had spent many long days with each other over a summer, trying to put the pieces of the course together, and in the process we had created a strong link between us. We learned just how much we really did have to talk about.

Administrative Perspective - Ginny

When I was invited to join a group of faculty who were preparing to teach a new interdisciplinary course, Contemporary Global Perspectives, I was surprised to discover the amount of flexibility I was granted. Teaching style, selection of specific literary works from a suggested bibliography, and use of some audiovisual aids were left up to me. The coordinator of the course also encouraged me to "teach to my strength". Since Contemporary Global Perspectives is a liberal arts course and my field is fashion, the opportunity to relate the social aspects of clothing, international marketing and cultural perception of design to a social science course was exciting.

To discover additional insights into the administrative perspective of interdisciplinary courses, I interviewed two administrators, the acting vice-president of academic affairs and the chairperson of the international studies division. My research reinforced my initial perception of academic freedom in the classroom, but also emphasized the importance of appropriate academic oversight and selection of faculty.

From the administrative viewpoint, interdisciplinary courses provide the unique opportunity to enrich the faculty and the curriculum, and ultimately the students. Interdisciplinary courses can be designed to meet the needs of each institution. In order to meet the objectives of the college mission statement and the mix of students needs and curricular programs, administrative support is essential to the development of interdisciplinary courses. Courses can be integrated across or within curricular boundaries, i.e. a senior level course which ties together the various components of a major; a course which integrates career and liberal arts; or a capstone seminar required of all graduates.

Administrative commitment to interdisciplinary courses extends beyond support for the development of specific courses. Administrators need to provide appropriate academic oversight to maintain focus on the original goal established during the evolution of the course. The oversight should include a respect of the autonomy and academic freedom of the instructor while ensuring that content is not fragmented or vastly different among faculty. The course needs to remain focused on the goal.

Next, administrators must look toward selecting appropriate faculty to teach the course. Highly motivated individuals who provide energy and focus are the most valuable. Administrators need to respect that some faculty will not be willing to undertake the endeavor. The best results are achieved when faculty volunteer because of a commitment to the goal and objectives of the course.

Course Design - Barbara

In my experience, faculty don't really become believers in interdisciplinary courses until they have participated in designing and teaching one. I've found this to be especially true of faculty who teach in the career areas. We are so used to trying to fill the students' heads with facts that they can later apply, we frequently don't realize how important reflection is. By their very nature, interdisciplinary courses force the teacher and the students to be more reflective.

I have been involved in designing and teaching an interdisciplinary course called Communication: Personal and Professional. This course is directed at sophomores. One of the primary objectives is to integrate liberal arts aspects such as the nature and use of language with professional concepts such as the nature of the interview.

The design process, although quite time consuming, was creative; it was enlightening; it helped to breakdown barriers between the liberal arts and the career faculty. In fact, working together on a series of courses has done a great deal to increase cohesiveness among our faculty. That has truly been an ecstasy for me!

The course design that came out of this effort was extremely ambitious. We were new to this process and had to make sure that all of our representative disciplines were afforded input.

And so began my agonies...teaching a newly-designed, never-taught-before course, outside my discipline. I was overwhelmed and over-prepared. I was insecure and was frequently concerned as to whether or not I was actually integrating any issues. To top it all off, my department chair (who is a wonderful, but an extremely territorial guy) was quite annoyed that I was teaching a course outside my department. He kept making plans to "get me back".

But perseverance did pay off. Once I was finally able to sort out that creating awareness during class sessions was my job, things began to fall into place. Through reading May Sarton's novel, *As We Are Now*, we could experience the catastrophic effects that a lack of communication can have, and then naturally move on to the importance of developing skills that will make us better communicators. Individual students frequently chose to pursue interests through later course work that came about through the awareness developed in Communications: Personal and Professional. My great ecstacies lie in watching the light bulbs of awareness go on in students.

Teaching and Learning Issues - Eleanor

If an instructor has an interest in pedagogy, interdisciplinary courses can be a sheer delight. I have found in the interdisciplinary courses I have no choice but to pursue a variety of methodologies since I cannot be an expert in the subject matter associated with all of the involved disciplines. Students need to become gatherers of much of their own material and information. I become a fellow learner and a facilitator of the process. This is not to say, the lecture is not viable, but it needs to be supplemented with interaction and clarification to ensure that students are making connections. Students learn by empowering themselves, even formulating their own bibliographies in an area of focus. They get a sense of doing what we, as instructors do.

At times, it can be agony to convince other instructors of the aforementioned. Many want to stay close to areas of expertise and find it difficult to allow students to take control of their own learning. Others do not want to concern themselves with pedagogy. The rewards are there when the risks are taken.

If instructors are fortunate enough to be team teaching an interdisciplinary course, the added benefit of reflecting on teaching methods with a colleague is present. Keeping the goals and objectives of the courses in mind, the instructors can collaboratively work to create a variety of classroom situations that culminate in the ecstasy of an energized classroom.

To summarize, interdisciplinary courses lend themselves extremely well to creative and enabling methods of instruction. Students benefit from such active learning, as do instructors. Pedagogy needs to be a part of the discussions that precede the development of the courses and continue during and after the courses are complete.

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Now that you have read of the realities faced by four instructors who have experienced the creating and teaching of interdisciplinary courses, we hope you will consider taking the risk of involvement with one or several. We, as a team, know our effort resulted in rewards that far outweighed the struggles. Risk the agonies and you will revel in the ecstasies.

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By Walter Wendler, Ward Wells, & Shannon Van Zandt

Encouraging Excellence and Diversity

The College of Architecture at Texas A&M University has implemented a Faculty and Staff Diversity Plan to respond to a need for better representation of all populations within the college. The plan creates a sensitive environment for recruitment, hiring and mentoring, and seeks to improve the overall quality of college personnel.

RESPONDING TO A need for better representation of all populations, the College of Architecture at Texas A&M University has implemented a Faculty and Staff Diversity Plan to create a sensitive and responsive environment in recruitment, hiring, and mentoring of faculty and staff. Not an affirmative action plan, the program is committed to increasing the overall quality of college personnel, through both hiring practices and development of current personnel.

For the past twenty years, there has been an acknowledgment among institutions of higher education of the need to diversify our communities. Almost all faculty agree that lack of diversity is a problem, and that colleges and universities should be actively involved in solving social problems (Milem & Astin, 1993). Milem and Astin show in their 1993 nationwide study that while attitudes toward issues of race and diversity have improved, they have not been adequately reflected in hiring practices. Architecture is typically a male-dominated profession, and this is reflected in a faculty that has long been comprised largely of professionals, rather than career academics holding terminal degrees. This seems to be characteristic of many professional schools. Colleges or schools such as these fight the stressors of a male-dominated profession and increasing entry-level qualifications that create a small pack of qualified applicants that is lacking adequate representation of the students and community served.

Staff often faces the opposite problem. Support positions are full of women; some are minorities, but most are white. Due to the long tradition of women in these positions, the attitudes toward and opportunities available to these positions make them unattractive to men. Milem and Astin's results suggest that women and minorities in university positions are more likely (than white men) to participate in campus efforts to improve diversity. Women and minorities in both faculty and staff positions need access to these opportunities, while men need encouragement and incentives to become involved in improving both the quality and diversity of their environment. The aim of the Faculty and Staff Diversity Plan is not only to encourage and facilitate sensitivity in the hiring of personnel from underrepresented groups, but also to mentor existing personnel through development and training opportunities.

In 1992, at the time of implementation of the Faculty Diversity Plan, the college had a faculty of 107 members, of which 97% were white and 89% male (the composition of the faculty is indicated in Table 1). National figures show that in 1989, approximately 91% of faculty at all institutions of higher education were white, and 72% were male (Milem & Astin). So, while the College of Architecture's figures were above average, they were likely reflective of architecture as a profes-

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sion, and were not out of character with the rest of the nation.

Created in 1968, the college has followed the general growth patterns of the university. For the past decade enrollment has been relatively stable, and while some faculty growth has occurred as research programs have expanded, faculty growth to address the needs of the student population has not been significant. Consequently, new hires most often fill vacated, not created, positions. The goal of the college has been to increase faculty census in underrepresented groups by at least 100% within five years.

Another trend has been an increase in applicants and hires holding a Ph.D. or other terminal degree in architecture and related fields. The *Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac* reports that only up-and-coming disciplines like communications technology and parks and recreation studies report higher gains in the number of doctoral degrees conferred. This is reflective of both increasing standards and the quality of people hired into the college. Interestingly, many of these new Ph.D. hires have been women. Current national figures indicate that coupled with an increase in the number of doctoral degrees awarded are high percentages of women in early tenure track positions (*Chronicle*, 1995). We speculate that more and more women are choosing academic careers over professional ones due to the stability, flexibility, support, and self-sufficiency available in a university setting. This may be particularly true in the discipline of architecture because most professional firms are small and unlikely to offer adequate benefits, are dependent on the availability of jobs and thus unable to keep staff through difficult times, and can be very competitive. These conditions can be unfavorable to women who have priorities and responsibilities beyond the workplace.

The heart of the plan is the Faculty Committee for Excellence and Diversity. On the faculty side, this committee works with the departmental committees in Recruitment, Tenure and Promotion to identify, recruit and retain faculty from underrepresented groups.

Structure of the Committee on Excellence and Diversity

The committee is comprised of four faculty members, one from each of the college's departments (Architecture, Landscape Architecture and Urban Planning, and Construction Science) and one at large member appointed by the dean. The committee has both proactive and reactive charges:

I. To ensure that the letter and spirit of all advertising is met with regards to establishing a more diverse faculty population.

II. To assist in reviewing resumes for all faculty positions with regards to diverse representation and general academic excellence.

III. To recommend to departmental Recruitment, Development, Tenure and Promotion Committees candidates who seem to best fit skill and representation parameters.

IV. To assist departments in identifying sources of highly qualified, diverse faculty members.

V. To assist departments in finding sources of supplemental funding to attract diverse faculty candidates to the college's programs.

VI. To assist departments in working with local community organizations and civic groups in giving a complete picture of life in the community.

VII. To identify individuals who might make effective faculty members in one of the college's departments.

To specifically address each of these charges, the committee has adopted sets of strategies that respond to identifying, recruiting and retaining diverse and excellent faculty, as well as strategies for encouraging involvement within the college.

Strategies for Awareness

The strategies for awareness serve two purposes. The first is to ensure that all department heads and departmental committees understand the importance of addressing the university's and the college's goals for diversity. This is accomplished through review of published diversity goals with department heads and committees and

ose association of the Committee for Excellence and Diversity during the advertisement, recruiting, and hiring of faculty. To further develop a familiarity with diversity goals, departments and other units within the college are encouraged to bring guest lecturers, critics, and speakers from underrepresented groups to campus.

The second purpose of awareness is to identify potential candidates. The disciplines within each department develop a listing of organizations that support and work towards better representation within the discipline. For example, the newsletters and membership lists of the National Organization of Minority Architects are a part of the recruitment strategies in the Department of Architecture. National academic associations such as the Association of Collegiate Schools of Planning, the Association of Collegiate Schools of Landscape Architecture, and the Associated Schools of Construction are consulted for information or potential candidates for faculty positions. Additionally, administrators and committee members must be familiar with the allied professional organizations and their efforts to understand and respond to the need for diversity in the professions. Awareness and responsiveness to the information available through these and other existing networks is critical. Pools of candidates for each discipline are developed jointly by the committee and individual departments. These pools are updated with each hiring cycle and coordinated with the various professional organizations. Annual meetings of the professional and academic societies are used to sensitize faculty to the availability and qualifications of potential faculty members.

Strategies for Recruitment

Within the college, a diversity pool has been formed that collects funds from vacated positions towards the recruitment of faculty from underrepresented groups. When any faculty position at any rank is vacated, that position will revert to an entry level position in the affected department. The difference in salary resources between the vacated position and the entry position is transferred to the diversity pool. Departments successful in attracting diverse faculty are rewarded through a proportioned allocation of faculty salary savings in the college.

Targeting possible minority candidates is accomplished by visits to the Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) which have degree programs similar to those offered in the college. African-American faculty are particularly scarce in colleges of architecture, so attempts are made to target potential candidates early. A representative of the college speaks with administrators, faculty and graduate students about the college's programs and initiatives. One initiative includes using faculty from HBCUs as teachers while they pursue the Ph.D. in one of the college's programs. This strategy is particularly useful in a college of architecture as many faculty members nationwide do not have terminal academic degrees.

To assist in networking and the creation of recruiting strategies, a representative from campus advisory committees such as the President's Former Student Advisory Committee on Black Issues will meet with the dean, department heads, and Faculty Committee for Excellence and Diversity at least once a year. These meetings also serve as a means of assessment of progress in accomplishing our goals for diversity.

During recruitment of specific underrepresented candidates, appropriate meetings with university administrators and faculty members from across the campus are initiated and enhancement for travel and associated costs is sought through the university.

Individual faculty members are encouraged to become involved in recruiting activities. Faculty members who successfully initiate and mentor the recruitment of a new faculty member from an underrepresented group are assigned a six-week summer appointment to continue to assist in recruiting of other faculty from underrepresented groups. Faculty are also encouraged to publish articles in professional journals that address the role of underrepresented groups in the professions represented in the college to increase awareness of our college within the professional and academic communities.

Strategies of Retention

To retain faculty from underrepresented groups, several strategies have been implemented to ensure that faculty members are

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adjusting to their new positions and roles, and feel that they are making contributions to the department, college, and university. To monitor the mentoring progress, faculty from underrepresented groups meet regularly with the Recruitment, Development, Tenure, and Promotion Committees of each department, as well as with the College's Committee for Excellence and Diversity. Additionally, faculty members have annual meetings with both the dean and the head of their department. Other strategies which are university-wide are also used to assure the highest and best mentoring potential for each faculty from an underrepresented group.

Strategies for Incentive

A number of incentives have been addressed throughout descriptions of other strategies. In addition to these, university incentives are also used. Thus it is critical to be familiar with incentive plans that the university has already put into place. Because it is the goal of the college to continue to improve representation of all groups within the college, faculty who participate in these initiatives are recognized for their effectiveness. Extraordinary performance in these areas can be rewarded with extraordinary rewards of travel funds, release time, graduate assistantships, and other means available to the department heads for distinguished service in increasing the diversity of the faculty.

Conclusion

While the program is new, the impacts of the Excellence and Diversity Committee are being felt already. Hiring in the past three years has yielded the results displayed in Table One, indicating growth in almost every aspect of diversity in the faculty population. In three years, since the establishment of the committee, the real number increase and the percent of the population increase are both significant in a professional college traditionally dominated by majority males.

Table 1
Minority Composition of College Faculty

Ethnicity	1992-93	1995-96
African American	1	2
Hispanic	2	2
Asian American	0	1
Native American	1	1
Totals	4	6
Gender (Females)	11	17
Totals	15	23

Additionally, the coupling of excellence and diversity has generated a pool of candidates that is remarkable in a college that houses disciplines that have a traditionally low census of underrepresented groups in both ethnic and gender dimensions. Such a pool ensures continued growth in faculty from underrepresented groups as positions become available.

Most significant in the process has been a heightened sense of awareness of the importance of diversifying. This has led to increased opportunity for students at both the graduate and undergraduate level. Layering new committees and review procedures in an already complex hiring and mentoring system could be seen as onerous. In this case, these additional aspects of the recruiting and nurturing of faculty have been seen as a positive shift in the culture of the college.

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By Joan M. Hofmann, Ph.D.

Faculty Development through Auditing

The challenges posed to faculty in meeting the technological needs of students are complex. Faculty development is one of these challenges. How can students' needs be successfully met when faculty are wanting in technological competence?
This article focuses on one answer to this dilemma: faculty enrollment in newly-developed technology courses. Via course artifacts and journal documentation, an education department faculty member describes the benefits and risks of an experience of auditing an undergraduate, interdisciplinary course, "Networking and Communication," offered by a department of mathematics. Recommendations related to implementation of this approach to faculty development are offered.

GARMSTON (1993) NOTES that stories are useful presentation tools for three reasons: 1) they personalize content, 2) they open windows to your intuitive knowledge as an audience, and 3) they can tap the resources of the unconscious mind.

But, what's in a story? There's a setting or context, a plot, one or more themes, characters (usually including a main character), a problem or conflict of some sort (and a resolution to it), and possibly a more general "moral to the story" or some kernels of wisdom drawn from the lived experience. Given these components, I'll share with you a story about my experience—as a faculty member in an education department—of auditing an undergraduate course during the spring semester of 1994 as a means of professional development in the area of computing and technology.

As a case study, this story is based on documents, artifacts, interviews, journal/log entries, field notes, tape recordings, memos, electronic mail transactions and memories. In fact, this story has not really ended. The resolution and the kernels of learning are still being sorted out. But they are not unclear, and will be revealed as the story unfolds.

Like any good story, telling this one raises questions as well as sparks insights. It calls for both the teller and the listener to make sense of the experience. It allows for a good sequel to be written at some point. And so, I invite you to think along with me. In this process we'll consider the purposes of professional development and recognize the unique features of auditing in a higher education community, particularly in the area of technology and computing.

Setting

Where did this experience take place? It happened at Saint Joseph College, a small school located in a suburb of Hartford, Connecticut. The College was founded in 1932 by the Sisters of Mercy as an institution combining professional and liberal arts preparations. It is comprised of the Women's College (a four-year program leading toward an undergraduate degree), the McAuley Weekend College (providing undergraduate programming to a coeducational adult population)

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and the Graduate Studies Program(providing for graduate and advanced graduate studies). There are approximately 70 full-time faculty and about 275 students graduate from the institution each year.

Faculty development has been the focus of increasing attention at the college. A faculty development committee was established in 1992 and a room was recently designated as a Faculty Development Center. The faculty handbook describes various faculty development opportunities, including: coursework availability, consortium activities, monetary support, mini-grants and sabbaticals. Relatedly, each faculty member is required to submit to the Provost an annual faculty development report which details individual goals and efforts in the three areas of: teaching; scholarship and professional activities; and service to the College and community.

Main Character

As the main character in this story, so to speak, let me describe myself as a third-year Assistant Professor in the Department of Child Study/ Education/Special Education at Saint Joseph College. I teach in a teacher preparation program at both the undergraduate and graduate levels, focusing in the areas of instruction, curriculum and assessment. My background in the area of computing and technology is novice and nascent; I have more interest and motivation than either expertise or competence. In this respect, I suspect that I am more like, than unlike, the majority of faculty. One of the goals that I noted in my faculty development report this year is "to explore avenues for further developing media and technology in teacher preparation." It is with this goal in mind that I decided to audit a new undergraduate course, "INTD 110: Networking and Communications" during the spring semester of 1994.

Larger Context

But what brought me to the decision to audit a course in telecomputing? In addition to reflecting on my related abilities and competencies, I recognize the role of several inducements, including the influence of information about technology through popular media, voices in the field of higher education, and trends in the field of education and teacher preparation.

It would be difficult for any of us to dismiss the impact of the constant bombardment of information about computing and technology in the popular press. Not a day goes by that there isn't some related article in the local paper or in the evening news. Al Gore and the Superhighway are alluded to in casual conversation. Information anxiety is now a common experience (Wurman, 1989). Tapscott and Caston describe the phenomena well when they note that: "Global telecommunications networks energize the metabolism of world commerce and move us inexorably toward Marshall McLuhan's global village" (1993, p. 2).

An additional influence in making the decision to audit was my recognition of changes in perspectives on the college curriculum. The enigmas posed by the availability of a superabundance of information and the abilities necessitated by this environment, require leadership in higher education to ensure college graduates' development of a full range of abilities for their future flexibility and success (Breivik & Jones, 1993).

Further, there are significant trends in the field of teacher preparation that were an impetus in my choosing to audit this course. NCATE is the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. In 1989 the International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) Accreditation Committee was formed to collaboratively develop, with NCATE, standards for teacher education related to computer knowledge and skills. The ISTE maintains that *all* current candidates seeking initial certification or endorsements in teacher preparation programs should demonstrate a set of competencies relative to the use of computers, telecommunications, and related technologies. (ISTE, 1993, p.7)

In light of the factors that I have outlined, it seemed to me that I had work to do both in terms of my own development and in terms of what I would be able to pass along to my students as future teachers. Reflecting on my professional imperatives and personal needs for development, when I heard of the new, undergraduate, "Networking and Communications" course, I thought auditing would assist me not only in developing my

understandings but possibly help me to upgrade my research skills using telecommunication networks.

The Course

The course I enrolled in was "Networking and Communications: Worldwide Computer Networks" and the syllabus notes that "A major course objective is to comprehend the Internet and its utility in the launching of the National Information Superhighway "(DeGray, 1994). In this two-credit course our focus would be on topics such as: The History and Future of Computer Networks (e.g. Internet), Uses of Networks, Internet Mail, User Services, Remote Logins, Standards Bodies, and Computer Mediated Communication and the Law.

The Experience of Auditing: The 'Student' Perspective

As a student, I found the experience of auditing the course to be stimulating and broadening. I learned about both content and process, and I learned more about myself as a learner. For example, I know I learn best in an exploratory atmosphere with an underlying structure. This was reiterated in this course. My journal is filled with notes regarding a) my development of new understandings about telecommunications and Internet throughout the semester, b) my occasional frustration with the pace of the course and organization of lessons, and c) my own difficulties in grasping the content. Throughout the course I wrestled with the stages of the learning sequence that Garmston describes so pointedly:

- unconscious incompetence (I don't know that I don't know)
- conscious incompetence (now I know that I don't know)
- conscious competence (I know as well as my own name and so don't have to put conscious effort into it). (1994, p. 66)

A self-assessment reveals that I am still at the unconscious incompetence and conscious incompetence stages relative to computer/technology content. Through this course, very episodically I caught glimpses of conscious competence as I revisited some of the increasingly familiar territory of electronic mail, subscribing and unsubscribing to lists, accessing remote data bases and the like. Several notebook and journal entries reflect these stages.

This experience repeatedly brought me to wonder about the nature of computing and technology that punctuates the stages of competency development and their accompanying emotion. Perhaps there are some elements related to content phobia similar to that recognized in women in the area of mathematics (Tobias, 1991; Tobias, 1990). Clearly, my journal holds many entries relative to surprise, consolation, and affirmation. Repeatedly, I struggled to understand and manipulate the computer. The words of struggle are clarion. Concomitantly, the feelings of exploration and excitement are evident throughout my notes. For example:

> Relatedly, I'm making plans to attend the Computer Tech conference in March. Found myself at the Portfolio Conference at Harvard this weekend lamenting that I couldn't add my e-mail address to the mailing list. I must get an account number from C this week. I also need to get in touch with M on that [telecomputing] dialogue journal project and need to e-mail folks at PS instead of writing. I'll get on it!

This was clearly an energizing experience, both in terms of the process of learning *about* and learning to *do*. The balance and tension of concrete and abstract continued throughout the duration of the course. Can you *do* before you *understand*? Can you understand before you do? I suspect that courses in telecomputing cause one to bump into this provocative thorn again and again. I certainly experienced it first-hand.

Auditing was also a valued opportunity to learn with others. The conversations with students before and after class were helpful, enjoyable and stimulating. It was here that one learned from others about newly-encountered lists or ways of making sense of Internet resources. The sharing of one's efforts could be done in a supportive place where it was okay not to fully understand.

Further, auditing allowed me to be very self-directed in my studies. By auditing, I was

able to decide how much energy I could devote to this course and also to define the areas of study that would receive my attention. This was a critical dimension to the experience. Undoubtedly, I maintained momentum and motivation by meeting my own needs relative to what I needed to know at the time.

> I find myself thinking about the course content a lot. I'm recognizing how motivation so clearly plays into learning. I consciously scan newspapers, journals, etc. for related content. I'm already talking more about telecommunications. Not that I know a lot, but I feel more aware, more enabled, somewhat more informed and so I find myself inviting conversation about networks and such.

Finally, some logistical matters that I encountered are noteworthy. For example, in the initial class session the course schedule was changed. This re-scheduling was very important to me since meeting once a week was far more 'doable' than two, short sessions. Also, my journal entry reveals the relief I felt as the instructor reviewed the course assignments. I realized the importance of giving and taking from this course according to my own individual needs. Looking back at my journal entries later, I was struck by the importance I attributed to these issues. They were of paramount concern, on equal footing with the content of the course.

The Experience of Auditing: The 'Teacher' Perspective

While I fully predicted benefiting from auditing the course when I registered for it, my expectations were limited to those I anticipated as a *student* in the course. Surprisingly, what I encountered in the very first session was the 'teacher in me.' In time I became more comfortable with this familiar inner voice or second level of thinking that would effortlessly take over. There were innumerable times while sitting in class that I would recognize a 'teaching dilemma' or a 'teachable moment' and find myself catapulted into my thinking as a teacher. At times I would be confronted with the projected difference between my own reaction to the precipitating situation and that of the instructor. More often I would take an observer's interest in the strategies that the instructor invoked as he worked with students not unlike my own.

The learning experience extended outside of the weekly meetings. Regularly and unexpectedly, situations from the class would come to mind between class sessions, causing me to reflect on related pedagogical issues. For instance, I frequently wondered about 'content-area pedagogy' relative to technology. Since I am not a teacher of technology, but thinking about the issues of teaching *with* technology, the class provided a weekly 'field encounter' of sorts.

Additionally, the 'teacher in me' recognized some of the issues inherent in trying to work with even a small group of people who have unique interests and disparate breadths and depths of background knowledge. As a class, we spanned the continuum of expertise with telecommunications, computers and Internet, ranging from novice to more accomplished. Emotionally, many of us were dealing with trying to define the amorphous 'nature and being of Internet,' while others had worked with it long enough to feel okay to 'just go with it.' I fully recognized the challenge of teaching amidst such diversity.

Implications for Professional Development

The urgency for providing opportunity for the development of faculty competency in all of the traditional areas of faculty professional development (teaching, research/publishing/presenting, and community service activities) is undeniable when we acknowledge the importance of faculty to college institutions. Jennings, Barlar and Bartling note:

> An institution's most valuable resource is its faculty. The faculty determine the structure and quality of the curriculum, control the quality of instruction, position the institution relative to creativity and scholarship, and implement the institution's service linkages and relationships (1991, p. 147).

Many are describing the technological paradigm shift and anticipate its far-reaching impact on how we as instructors will teach and how our students will learn. Hy-

permedia computers connected via international broad-band networks combined with hypermedia authoring and delivery systems will profoundly affect us in the days ahead as we create customized teaching materials, publish electronically and conduct research via remote sites. But getting from 'here' to 'there' will not be easy; in terms of academic budgets, this so-called "technology paradigm shift" couldn't be happening at a worse time (Jensen, 1993).

The call for comprehensive professional development planning is further amplified when we recognize several additional factors impacting our colleges at this point in time: older and less mobile faculty, student demographics, financial constraints, and societal changes (Mott, 1994). These changes include the need for college graduates with computing awareness, readiness and literacy. As we instruct at the postsecondary level we must incorporate new instructional and research methods into our repertoires in order to prepare these students.

Beyond instruction, faculty interest in telecommunications is induced by far-reaching opportunities for journal and document research from remote sites, collaborative research with colleagues at both neighboring and distant institutions, and communication via bulletin boards and discussion groups with professional organizations and individuals world-wide. Additionally, many organizations are now announcing up-coming conferences via electronic bulletin boards and receiving articles for publishing via electronic mail.

As we attempt to expand our instructional and research repertoires, it is important to recognize that integrating innovations requires extended time for adjustment (Guskey, 1990) and change in practice "takes considerable time and is the result of staff development that is conducted over several years" (Wood, 1993). Taking a long-term view is further acknowledged in the Carnegie Foundation Report for the Advancement of Teaching (Boyer, 1990) which recommends developing three to five year professional development plans toward meeting individual and department goals.

The need for greater facility, understanding and integration of computing methodology extends to all fields. For those faculty whose primary field is not computing and telecommunications, access to equipment and expertise on an on-going basis, in a supportive environment, with instruction crafted to match individual needs are a necessity. Auditing of telecommunications courses on the local campus may be one answer.

Recommendations

Based on my experience, I would recommend serious consideration be given to auditing as a means of professional development. If you decide to give this option a try, here are some suggestions:

- ***Recognize the influence of your enrollment on the instructor.*** It is important that you select your course with thoughtful recognition of the feelings of the instructor and courteously speak with the person in advance. I selected a colleague with whom I had worked before. Our roles as 'expert' and 'novice' were previously established so that when I approached him about auditing the course, he playfully responded, "Oh, I thought you might co-teach it with me!"
- ***Be aware of the impact of your presence on both the instructor and the other students.*** I still recall a faculty co-auditor apologizing to the class, "Oh, I'm supposed to be quiet. You're the student. I'm the audience." While I do not think this one instance had any real effect on the class, multiple cross-commenting could distract from the learning.
- ***Carefully consider your goals and 'agenda' and, if appropriate, attempt to clarify these with the instructor ahead of time.*** I very much wanted to cause minimal concern to my faculty colleague as he taught the course for the first time. But, given his accommodating nature, I suspect that I may have been able to meet more of my personal objectives in taking this course if I had explicated them and worked on them with him more collaboratively.
- ***Have reasonable expectations of your capacity to be in class for the scheduled sessions and work this out with the instructor.*** Given other commitments, I knew in advance that I had a few conflicts with the class schedule at the start of the semester. Yet, even with the best of intentions it was quite difficult to continue to

follow through on my commitment to this course. A desire to be a part of the 'community of learners' and the need to fulfill responsibilities to the instructor and the other students weigh toward regular attendance and participation.

- ***Be sensitive to the risks that both you and the course instructor are taking. As an auditing student, you are revealing your lack of knowledge and understanding while s/he is revealing the depth of his/her knowledge and teaching expertise.*** Teachers have been described as social, artistic and enterprising(Holland, 1973). Their work, however, is often individualistic and conducted in private (Goodlad, 1982; Lortie, 1975). As an auditor you are a student rather than a peer coach, observer or mentor. If you wish to explore these other roles, you would want to fully discuss the reciprocal roles and mutual benefits beforehand (DeZure, 1993). As an auditor, stick to your role unless you have mutually decided otherwise with the course instructor.
- ***To gain maximum benefit from auditing, maintain a journal and a system of note taking to chronicle the content and process dimensions of your experience.*** A journal provides a tool for clarifying ideas and experiences. You can return to it and revisit your experiences and refine your thinking. As noted by Holly (1989), "[t]hrough the journal-keeping process, we can become more sensitive observers, more penetrating in our inquiry into 'what it all means,' and more focused on our roles and directions in life (p. 266)."
- ***Enjoy the process of learning.*** It can be exhilarating to explore new areas, and a real pleasure to experience this with students. As a college professor, if you enjoy teaching young adults you may well relish the process of learning with them as a fellow student.

Professional development is critical to our on-going satisfaction and performance as faculty in post-secondary institutions. As inquiring professionals, we seek out opportunity to enhance our understandings, nurture and challenge our attitudes and beliefs, and develop our skills and competencies. In order to do this, we need a milieu of professional growth and improvement that fosters our self-directed learning and provides us with the resources for on-going development.

To enable ourselves to meet continuing demands and changes, we need to take advantage of a variety of resources and opportunities. Some of these may well be right on our own campuses. Without allocating additional financial resources, an institution can provide faculty access to up-to-date, stimulating opportunities to enhance their professional development through the auditing of telecommunications courses. Such experiences can be gained on local equipment and with proximate colleagues, promoting on-going networking and campus-wide collegial relationships.

Auditing may be one way to assist faculty in creatively expanding their instructional repertoires and research capabilities through rewarding experiences that meet their evolving professional needs. It has certainly been an energizing experience for me. Not only have I built a foundation of knowledge and nurtured some novice computing skills, I have developed several faculty and student relationships to draw on as I continue to advance my understandings. In fact, this spring a group of five faculty members and one student, representing all five divisions of our college, collaboratively submitted a mini-grant proposal for an interdisciplinary computing project. We've given ourselves the name, "Faculty Technology Associates" and already have plans for several initiatives in the next academic year!

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By John P. Murray

Understanding and Using Teaching Portfolios: An Administrator's Perspective

Teaching portfolios not only provide a means for authentic assessment of teaching, but also a vehicle for faculty development. However, teaching portfolios will only do the trick if administrators create a climate conducive to authentic assessment and continuous improvement of teaching and learning.

BROWSING THROUGH any recently published journal dealing with higher education, one is struck with the ubiquitous and vociferous denunciations of the state of teaching in higher education. Such denunciations seem well on the way to becoming the cliche opening for articles describing the state of higher education in our time. Much of the public pillorying centers around the belief that college teaching requires only a minimal expenditure of time and that professors make only brief appearances on campus between consulting jobs (cf Greenberg, October 20, 1993, p. A68). Therefore, much of the derisive literature speaks more to increasing the quantity rather than the quality of teaching. Responding to the public denunciation of the work load in higher education, "eight states currently have some type of legislation [to increase the hours professors spend in the classroom] and it is under serious consideration in six others" (Committee C, 1994, p. 3).

Administrators know that much of the criticism bears little resemblance to reality. Nonetheless, college administrators are awakening to the need to find ways to "educate" the public about the laborious work of teaching. Educators need to dispel the myth that teaching is part-time or voluntary work done to support other endeavors. We must demonstrate that the hours spent in the classroom are only a minimal part of the real work of teaching. One means to this end is the teaching portfolio. The teaching portfolio can provide administrators with a vehicle to document the *quality and quantity* of teaching.

However, teaching portfolios will only do the trick if administrators create a climate where they can succeed. Administrators need to examine how teaching is assessed. They need to provide prominence to the rewards for good teaching, and they need to demonstrate that they will address poor teaching. Administrators need to scrutinize the reward structures available for their use and find innovative ways to reward faculty who take seriously the task of examining their teaching. However, creating a climate where teaching is valued and, at the same time, innovation and risk-taking are encouraged can be quite challenging for an administrator. It becomes imperative that administrators create a climate where faculty feel free to risk failure as well as celebrate their success. According to Murray (1995), administrators should pay attention to five conditions.

- **Condition 1:** Administrators must surrender some control over the evaluation process to the individual faculty member and her/his colleagues.
- **Condition 2:** Colleges and universities must define what "good teaching" means.

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- **Condition 3:** Before administrators can institute a portfolio project, many will need to allay the natural suspicions of faculty. Many faculty may harbor suspicions about any evaluation technique. Others may worry about the time developing a portfolio might take.
- **Condition 4:** Administrators need to create an atmosphere of collegiality.
- **Condition 5:** Administrators must provide their faculty with the means to succeed.

The enticement of portfolios in any arena centers on the individuality they allow their creators to demonstrate. Because portfolios reflect the personality and image of their producers, any genuine portfolio reflects the uniqueness of the person who puts it together. Consequently, administrators cannot insist on a standard product which means they will have less control over how teachers assess their teaching. This individuality of documentation makes it critical that institutions have a common understanding of what is meant by "good teaching". The standards of good teaching are not variable only the means of documenting how the standards are achieved vary. The portfolio should allow each professor the opportunity to demonstrate how he or she meets the standards.

Although teaching portfolios allow for individuality in demonstrating the quality of one's teaching, some common components need to be addressed. Most portfolios will incorporate a statement of the professor's philosophical beliefs about teaching and learning. Our philosophical beliefs shape, sometimes in subtle ways, our behaviors. When professors reflect on how a particular reading, a specific teaching style, or how a particular assignment relates to their philosophy of education, they are examining deeply held convictions. Therefore, much of the remainder of the portfolio will detail how they put their beliefs into practice in and out of the classroom. Most importantly, much of the portfolio will be devoted to reflection on how behaviors are congruent with beliefs. Most portfolios will incorporate a plan for altering behaviors that are found to be incongruent with the professors' philosophical assumptions about teaching and learning. The plan should incorporate a strategy to assess the appropriateness and success of the new behaviors.

Portfolios should document the professor's teaching effectiveness. However, beyond a statement of philosophical assumptions and a plan for improving one's teaching, the specifics about the content of the portfolios are best left to the individual. A portfolio might contain the actual artifacts generated in the course of teaching, such as syllabi, handouts, overheads, copies of graded student work and so on, information from students and colleagues about one's teaching, committee assignments that relate to the improvement of teaching on campus, and copies of presentations and publications relating to teaching. The exhibits might take the form of statistical results (e.g. student evaluations) or qualitative, anecdotal material (e.g.. a thank you note from a student). Nonetheless, the key to a useful portfolio will be the *reflections* of the professor on how the exhibited materials aid him/her to achieve his\her philosophical goals.

Portfolios might have several uses. The primary use will always be for the improvement of instruction. Portfolios can also assist administrators in demonstrating to critics that teaching is still a primary function of the academy. Beyond these uses, portfolios might be used to prove professors fitness for promotion, tenure, merit pay, and so on. Portfolios might be very useful to a screening committee should a professor wish to change positions. However, the basic usefulness will always be the self-reflection a portfolio occasions.

Any administrator undertaking a portfolio project must determine how the portfolio will be evaluated. There has been an unfortunate silence in the literature on teaching portfolios regarding their evaluation (Seagren, Creswell, and Wheeler, 1993). Consequently, some faculty on campuses where portfolios play a considerable role in personnel decisions are uneasy about the potential for abuse. Clearly articulated criteria must be available to faculty *before* they start to assemble a portfolio. The standards for evaluating a portfolio should be definitively linked to the purpose for assembling the portfolio. The standards would be more effective if they were developed collaboratively by colleagues within a department and were explicitly linked to that department's and the college's definition of good teaching. Evaluators will want to arrive at a clear and mutual understanding of what each criterion means and

what behaviors would be examples of meeting that criterion. Evaluators should also arrive at a common and a public understanding of descriptors such as "excellent", "good", "average", and "poor". Centra (1992) and Root (1987) both demonstrated that when the evaluators have a clear understanding of the criteria for judging portfolios, the ratings will be reliable.

Building interest ultimately means managing change, and, in this case, a significant change in the culture of higher education. Administrators will need to become effective change agents. Because most of us are well steeped in the "traditions" of academia, it can be quite challenging to guide others through changes seeking to radically alter that hegemony. If the change is to be significant and lasting, administrators should develop methods to include most faculty in the process—not simply in the product. For many administrators this will mean learning more about how to implement change, garner support, and overcoming resistance (Eison, 1993).

When attempting to influence the behavior of faculty, the key players become the department chairpersons (Murray, 1992; Tucker, 1984; Seagren, Creswell and Wheeler, 1993). At academic institutions disciplinary departments not only form the institutional power base but also strongly influence the common conception of good teaching (Cross, 1990, p. 16). Therefore, the ultimate success of a teaching portfolio project will be heavily dependent on the support of chairpersons. Colleges will need to provide opportunities for chairpersons to learn more about how to build interest in teaching portfolios (Eison, 1993). For chairpersons to be successful they will need to develop strategies for involving departmental faculty in a collegial effort.

A complete portfolio project requires careful attention to at least five aspects of faculty evaluation. First, faculty will need to become familiar with a variety of formative evaluation techniques. Second, faculty will need to become familiar with ways to use assessment data to improve teaching. Third, the institution will need to provide support for faculty development activities. Fourth, administrators will need to recognize and reward both improved teaching and efforts toward improved teaching. Fifth, administrators will need to become effective at performance counseling.

If the improvement of teaching and learning is the ultimate goal of a portfolio project, most faculty will need to learn how to assess their teaching effectiveness and student learning. Although the literature on faculty evaluation has included references to formative evaluation for some time, these references usually fail to include advice on how one might go about this vital task.

While many faculty are quite capable of knowing when students are not getting the material, many do not know how to go about discovering *why* they are not learning. Moreover, many faculty members continue to teach in the "same old, same old" ways and never assess the currency of their teaching strategies. Incompetence or indifference is not usually the reason for this sad state of affairs. More often, the root cause is that faculty well educated in a discipline lack the knowledge of how to assess their teaching, their students' learning, or their courses. Therefore, administrators should plan activities intended to help faculty *learn how* to assess their teaching, their students learning, and the currency of their courses.

Formative evaluation techniques range from very formal procedures such as clinical supervision, IDEA (Miller, 1987), TABS (Clinic to Improve, 1974), and so on to more informal techniques such as the classroom assessment techniques promoted by DeAngelo and Cross (1993). There are a variety of other creative approaches to formative evaluation. Some include mid-term student evaluations designed to elicit student opinions in time to make changes (see Murray 1991). Other techniques are variations on TQM and other business management quality assurance techniques (see Cerbin, 1992; Nuhfer, 1992 for descriptions of two such techniques). Formative evaluations can also include self-evaluation techniques (see Murray and Murray, 1992) and peer review (Hilsen and Rutherford, 1991). Whatever evaluation techniques are in fact adopted they should be designed to yield detailed information that can be used by the professor to improve teaching.

While some of the data from formative evaluation techniques can suggest changes that can be immediately and easily incorporated into a professor's teaching style, more

substantial changes require administrative support. Some colleges and universities have or are in the process of developing teaching excellence centers that provide both one-on-one assistance and a variety of workshops. If these centers are to help faculty members use the data from their formative evaluation efforts, they must provide a variety of services from one-day seminars on some aspect of teaching to longer, sustained efforts such as mircoteaching workshops (Hilsen and Rutherford, 1991).

A well articulated plan for faculty development is critical to the success of any portfolio project. Professors, who after a serious examination of their teaching, want to make changes in their teaching will become discouraged if they find no support. The lack of administrative support for faculty development signals that teaching—especially the improvement of teaching—is not an institutional priority. Unfortunately, on many campuses faculty will have great difficulty finding an organized, comprehensive faculty development plan (Schuster, 1990, p. 3; Bland & Schmitz, 1990, p. 41.; Clark, Corcoran, Lewis, 1986, p. 188). In the absence of an institutional response, department chairpersons need to take the lead and assist faculty to develop individual renewal plans. In their planning chairpersons should not overlook the "hidden" or unofficial resources within their department. Many departments have individuals that are widely recognized for being excellent teachers. These individuals can provide colleagues with a great deal of assistance.

Performance appraisal or summative faculty evaluation is widespread throughout higher education. Controversy over the effects of faculty evaluation is equally widespread. Critics say that they are often either performed in a perfunctory manner or badly misused. Demming argued that a typical evaluation "nourishes short-term performance, annihilates long-term planning, builds fear, demolishes teamwork, and nourishes rivalry" (quoted in the Washington Post, April 3, 1994). Nonetheless, faculty evaluation is necessary to an organization interested in assessing how well it meets its mission. Moreover, evaluation systems carefully and collaboratively designed can assist an institution in meeting its stated mission.

The difference between a faculty evaluation system that supports faculty and one that demoralizes faculty can be found in the care that goes into designing a *systematic and comprehensive* evaluation. Administrators need to take the time to work with faculty to develop the instruments and procedures rather than impose them on the faculty. Administrators and faculty working together need to start by determining the purpose(s) of evaluation, who will be evaluated, how often, who will do the evaluating, and most importantly, what will be evaluated.

Administrators need to take great pains to publicly connect the outcomes of faculty evaluation to the reward system. When the faculty evaluation process demonstrates that an individual is a good teacher, chairpersons must be certain that the institution rewards the individual. For too long rewards have gone to the faculty who excel at research (NCTLA, Winter, 1993). Unless higher education strives to recognize and reward good teaching, teaching portfolios will be a waste of time.

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By Damon A. Revelas

Perceptions of Department Chairpersons in Higher Education

A survey of department chairpersons of various academic disciplines and higher educational settings (e.g. research universities, four-year colleges, community colleges) to determine their perceptions of the roles of their position. The sample group of 102 were asked to consider the importance of the following roles: 1) Leader, 2) Scholar, 3) Faculty Developer, and; 4) Manager.

POSSIBLY THE MOST important yet underrated position in a college or university is the department chair - the person in a position to have the most effective influence on the faculty, but for most institutions, the most neglected or least integrated position in the organizational structure (Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler, 1993). It is the department chair that holds a key position in the hierarchy of college and university administration, for it is this person who must supervise the translation of institutional goals and policies into academic practice. The chair stands in the uncomfortable area between an educational system continually under pressure for efficient management and a learning environment whose members search meaning, relevance, and greater flexibility and freedom. With few exceptions, chairpeople are trained as educators, not administrators. This would seem to provide a reasonable path for the study of the department chair as an administrator, identifying key roles and the perceptions of the chair on these roles.

Conflicts of Department Chair

Academic chairs occupy a pivotal position in the organization of higher education. An estimated 80 percent of all university decisions are made at the departmental level (Roach, 1976). The chair remains the only official on campus who attempts to interpret the department to the administration and the administration to the faculty. This is also referred to as the "swivel effect" (Caplow & McGee, 1965), in which the chair is in the middle between allegiance to faculty and to the administration and the institution. This role certainly poses conflict for the chair within the internal and external structure of the institution.

Chairs have two faces: an administrator and a faculty member (Gmelch & Burns, 1991). The conflicts for chairs include resolving tensions both horizontally (for the department) and vertically (for the institution). Because chairs must represent both faculty and administrative perspectives, this in-between status raises questions about how they should act and perceive their position. Perhaps chairs should assume one of three views toward their role and position:

1) They are really just another faculty member who happens temporarily to have additional and somewhat different duties and who identifies with departmental colleagues as the real constituency or object of loyalty.
2) They have changed in some basic way by becoming an extension of the college administration and view the administration as their key constituency.

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3) They have a representative view of the discipline and receive mandate to lead from the discipline itself instead of from departmental colleagues or administration (Booth, 1982).

By and large, no single view characterizes all of the ways chairs behave. However, these three views represent the ambiguity in the role of a chair and chairs' use of elaborate strategies to protect themselves from faculty stakeholders.

The organizational and individual context in which chairing occurs affects the ambiguity and strains of the position. As individuals who are neither pure faculty nor regular administration, chairs operate within an organizational, departmental structure that is based on the academic model of faculty autonomy in decision making and peer control over departmental life. Although the authority of faculty varies by type of institution, such authority can cause conflict with the administrative model of efficiency and the top-down approach of decision making.

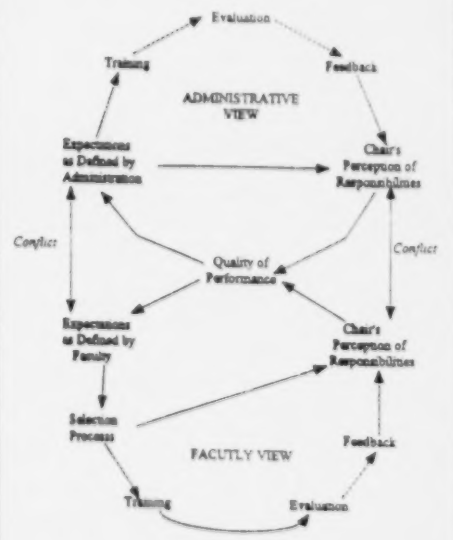
Inherent in the job of chairing a department is the potential conflict between faculty and administrative views of the department chair (See Figure 1). The administrative view (the top circle) of training, evaluation, feedback, and quality performance for department chairs are driven by expectations as defined by the administration and the chair's perception of responsibilities.

This view could conflict with a faculty member's view (the lower circle) of a department chair, whose expectations in being elected or appointed flow from the faculty. These expectations in turn affect the chair's perceptions of responsibilities, which affect perceptions of roles. From a faculty member's perspective, training, evaluation, feedback, and quality of performance should flow from faculty-defined expectations. Therefore, the administrative view and the faculty view of the chair often conflict.

Roles of Department Chairs

Given the importance of the position of department chair, in that it is the thread between faculty and administration, the chair has been analyzed more than any other administrator in the college or university context. Since 1965, at least 12 studies have attempted to map the roles of department chairs; addressing the tasks, duties, responsibilities, activities and roles of chairs. The focus of these studies were on : a) responsibilities of a chair in a college of education studied by Norton, (1980); b) subroles emphasized by chairs investigated by Bragg, (1981); c) Jennerich's (1981) study on competencies of chairs; d) Moses & Roe's (1990) research on headship functions; e) roles of department chairs (CSDC, 1992), and; f) the study of roles, tasks and competencies of Seagren & Filan (1992). However, none of the above studies attempted to make a comparison of the chairs roles between various academic institutional structures (e.g. research university, four-year college, community college) to find out the differences between the perceptions of the chair in these categories (See Table 1).

FIGURE 1
The Department Chair's Dilemma



Source: Faculty Senate Commitee, the George Washington University. Adapted from: Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler. (1993). *The Department Chair: New Roles, Responsibilities and Challenges*. Washington, DC: George Washington University, p. 13.

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When these roles were presented, tasks and duties were grouped into larger, enveloping domains. The duties, tasks, or responsibilities ranged from a list of 98 (Seagren, 1978); to a list of 27 (encourage professional development, manage clerical staff, coordinates activities, etc) (Smart & Elton, 1976). Chairs roles were as few as two (McLaughlin, Montgomery, & Malpass, 1975) to as many as 28 (e.g. teacher, manager, leader, planner, etc.) (Tucker, 1992; 1984). As the analysis continues, a complexity emerges, yet these role typologies seldom build on each other or provide a definitive list of areas of responsibility. From the many studies conducted on roles of department chairs, a portrait of the roles and responsibilities are constructed by the chairs themselves, by deans, and administrative superiors of chairs, and by faculty.

Methodology

To investigate the roles of department chairs, four main role categories emerge as discussed above and were implemented in this study: the Leader, the Scholar, the Faculty Developer, and the Manager. As leaders of the department, the chair provides long-term direction and vision for the department, solicits ideas to improve the department, plans and evaluates curriculum development, and conducts departmental meetings. As a scholar, a chair continues to teach, keep current in academic discipline, maintain research programs and solicits grants to support his or her research. As a faculty developer, a chair recruits, selects and evaluates faculty and provides informal direction to enhance faculty morale and promote professional development. As a manager, a chair prepares budgets, maintains department records, assigns duties to faculty and maintains finances, facilities and equipment.

The instrument used in this study consisted of several categories (e.g. Leader, Scholar, Faculty Developer, Manager) and was adapted from a previous study, with modifications, conducted by Gmelch & Miskin (1993). In each of the four roles as discussed above, there were six questions asked, with seven questions asked in the last role, for a total of 25. The department chair was

TABLE 1
Studies about the Roles and Responsibilities of Chairs

Author	Focus	Aspect of Role/ Responsibility Examined	Specific Roles and Responsibilities
Norton 1980	Responsibilities in a college of education	8 task areas	Internal administration, budgetary planning, personnel administration & communication, curriculum, student personnel, personal & professional development
Bragg 1981	Subroles emphasized by chairs	Faculty, externally, program, management oriented	Recruiting, evaluation, negotiation, enhancement of department's image, program development
Jennerich 1981	Competencies of chairs	14 skills and competencies	Character/integrity, leadership ability, interpersonal ability, communication, decision making, organization
Moses& Roe 1990	Headship functions	40 functions	Staff & student affairs, professional development, administration, one's own academic activities, budget & resources
"Roles of Department Chairs" 1992	Roles	Leader, scholar, faculty developer & manager	Elements identified for each role
Seagren & Filan 1992	Roles, tasks, competencies	18 roles, 32 tasks, 12 competencies	e.g., motivator, integrate unit plans, decisiveness

Source: Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler. (1993). *The Department Chair: New Roles, Responsibilities and Challenges.* Washington, DC: George Washington University. p. 6.

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asked to rate the level of importance of each question under each role, using a five point Likert scale. This scale rates the importance of chairs' duties from low (1) to high (5), with (3) representing medium.

A variety of statistical analyses were performed on the resultant data collected. First, a descriptive listing of the demographic items in the instrument were performed. The descriptive program of the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS) (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1994) was employed, listing frequencies, means, and standard deviations of the input.

Principal components analysis was used to develop four scales, one for each of the four role categories. In principal components analysis, original variables are transformed into principal components which are linear combinations of these variables. The purpose of principal components analysis is to be able to describe a construct more economically, that is with fewer variables, than in the original instrument.

Second, two series of Analyses of Variance were performed. The first set of analyses utilized the derived scales as dependent variables and the second set used responses to the individual questionnaire items as dependent variables. For the first series of analyses, those involving the four derived leader, scholar, faculty developer, and manager scales, interactions among these variables were examined. For the second set of analyses, those using responses to the individual tasks as dependent variables, only the main effects were examined.

Results

The population consisted of department chairs in higher educational institutions in the Western New York area. Three distinct categories were studied: 1) research universities, 2) four-year colleges, and; 3) community colleges. The researcher distributed the survey instrument, personally to 102 department chairs, selected randomly. Within the sample selection, four institutions were selected randomly from each category (e.g. research university, four-year college, community college) and 34 chairpersons were selected randomly in each grouping based on Biglans (1973) clustering of academic departments in three dimensions (e.g. for the purpose of this study, only hard science vs. soft science were used). Biglan (1973) clustered academic departments in three dimensions. "Hard" or scientific departments are characterized by a paradigm or agreed upon set of problems and methods; while "soft" departments do not have a clearly delineated paradigm. This was the single issue in this classification used for this study.

Eighty-seven department chairs responded to the survey, for a response rate 85.3%. By and large, chairs' perceptions of the importance of the role as leader did not differ based on academic discipline and type of institution. Overall, department chairs in this study felt that their role as leader was very important (mean=4.25). The analysis indicated that chairs from community colleges and four-year colleges rated leadership as slightly more important respectively than did those from research universities. There were no significant differences at this level.

In terms of the scholar role, results indicated that chairs' perceptions differed based on the type of institution. Chairs from research universities rated scholar as most important, followed by four-year colleges and community colleges. Overall, the scholar role was considered of medium importance among chairs at all levels (mean=3.69). Chairs at the research university level regarded the scholar role as most important, followed by the four-year college and community college chair respectively. As such, there were significant differences for the role of scholar between the department chairs at various academic levels.

Overall, the role of faculty developer was rated as very important among all levels of academic structure (mean= 4.30). Chairs of research universities and four-year colleges placed more importance on this role than did community colleges. Similarly, chairs of the soft sciences rate faculty developer slightly more important than did their colleagues in the hard sciences. Those with the most experience placed more value on the developer role than did those chairs with medium and low experience respectively. There were significant differences between the four-year college department chair and the community college department chair.

By and large, department chairs felt that their role of manager was of medium importance across academic structures

(mean=3.94). Chairs at the four-year college level perceived the manager role as very important, followed by chairs at community colleges and research universities respectively. Department chairs of the soft sciences viewed this role as more important than hard sciences. Those participants with the least amount of experience rated this role as most important, followed by high and low respectively. There appeared to be no significant differences in this role comparison (See Table 2).

Conclusions

As can be seen by the results of this study, several implications can be made. First, department chairs valued their role as leader, by the imposed power and authority that is obtained by the title. The value of leadership was evident and most department chairs recognized that value.

Second, the role of scholar was evident in the research university and four-year college department chair. This was the one area of the study that institutional structure rendered real importance. By and large, most universities and colleges are expected to engage in research. Is this to mean that community colleges are not expected to further knowledge in education by means of research? This would seem to be consistent with that of the findings on community college chairs' perception of the manager role.

Third, the role of faculty developer was viewed as most important by those chairs in research universities and four-year colleges. Community college chairs viewed this role as relatively insignificant. Is that to state that chairs, at this particular institutional structure, don't value developing faculty? The results may indicate such, however, most chairs at the community college level seem to be burdened with the managerial functions of their position as chair.

The final role, the manager, was highly regarded by community college chairs. The majority of the chairs at this level placed a great level of importance on those functions of a manager. Hiring faculty, proposing budgets, and the like seemed to be the focus of these chairs. Little time is left for the chair at community colleges to develop faculty, and no time to research.

By and large, with the ambiguity that still exists among the roles of department chairs, a close look at the chair's function might be appropriate. What is the primary duty of the department chair? Is it to do all the work that deans funnel down? Is it to **truly** be a leader? Or is the function of the chair to push papers from one area of the academy to another? Past research would indicate that the department chair at higher educational institutions are expected to wear "many hats" without the appropriate support from administration, or appreciation from faculty. This study is no exception.

Its time has come for the academy to examine what is expected from a department

TABLE 2
Descriptive Statistics for Role Categories

Roles of Chairperson	Leader		Scholar		Faculty Developer		Manager	
Group	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Type of Institution	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Research University	4.18	.45	4.12	.65	4.48	.52	3.80	.77
Four-year College	4.30	.47	3.59	.75	4.47	.43	4.13	.63
Community College	4.31	.47	2.99	.62	3.71	.52	3.95	.72
Academic Discipline	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hard Science	4.19	.51	3.72	.88	4.27	.60	3.88	.78
Soft Science	4.31	.39	3.67	.73	4.34	.58	4.00	.65
Years as Chair	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
0 - 2 Years	4.30	.56	3.32	.76	4.16	.63	4.07	.54
3 - 5 Years	4.14	.30	3.89	.81	4.26	.63	3.82	.64
Over 5 Years	4.30	.46	3.76	.77	4.43	.51	3.95	.87
Overall	4.25	.46	3.69	.81	4.30	.59	3.94	.72

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chair. Without guidance from the academy, and a sense of professionalism, most chairs feel overworked and underappreciated. Administration must give the department chair the opportunity to be a true catalyst of the department without restrictions from the institution; or the chair is nothing but a title.

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Downsizing Higher Education, College Teaching, Practices in Improvement, and Interdisciplinary Courses

The following book reviews involve titles of interest to professional development practitioners.

Downsizing

***You Can Get There from Here: The Road to Downsizing in Higher Education*, by Barbara Butterfield with Susan Wolfe. Washington, DC: The College and University Personnel Association, 1994, ix + 136 pp.**

Reviewed by Robin M. Dasher-Alston

During the last decade, colleges and universities have been placed in the uncomfortable position of having to confront the realities of shifting enrollment patterns and mounting financial pressures, the need to realign programs and services, and to cope with aging facilities. In addition, the last several years have been distinguished by a change in the public's perceptions of and expectations for higher education. A none too subtle wake-up call has been leveled at the higher education community—holding institutions accountable for the knowledge, skills and competencies of their graduates. Higher education leaders are attempting to address the public's concerns, and the critical issues facing their institutions, while competing for dwindling public funds and suffering a dramatic decline in net tuition revenues.

Few of us have attended a conference, read a publication, or been in the company of other members of the higher education community recently without discussing these issues. Many have made valiant attempts, sometimes successfully, to rightsize, reinvent, retrench, reengineer or restructure their programs, services or institutions. The bottom line, of course, has been to determine how to do more with less without sacrificing quality or threatening the integrity of the institution.

It is interesting to note that few of the discussions have focused on the impact that these management strategies and techniques have on human resource issues, particularly when more than 50 percent of most institutional budgets are earmarked for personnel-related expenses. As author Barbara Butterfield, with Susan Wolfe, notes, the impact of downsizing in higher education affects not only the retention, productivity and morale of existing employees, but the ability to recruit a competent workforce.

You Can Get There From Here: The Road to Downsizing in Higher Education is a cogent and well-written book that provides practical strategies, sound advice, and pragmatic alternatives for institutions contemplating downsizing. The difference between this volume and others currently available is that it places the human resources professional at the center of the planning process. An institution that fails to fully engage its

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human resource manager in the process is demonstrating a lack of commitment to and concern for the organization's most important asset—its employees.

Butterfield, Vice President for Faculty and Staff Services at Stanford University, has identified planning as the key to developing a strategy for downsizing. She draws an analogy between devising a plan for downsizing and making careful preparations for a journey—developing a roadmap that will help institutions lay the groundwork for traveling from point A to point B, identifying alternative routes for travel, recognizing when to take detours, and being clear about the final destination.

The book is arranged in a very clear and logical manner, with fifteen chapters that address the issues and concerns that higher education administrators will have to consider as they contemplate the implications of downsizing. Initially, the first three chapters may seem general in nature and geared toward the novice, but they provide a strong contextual framework for the remainder of the book. What every administrator learns in Planning 101, but frequently overlooks, is the importance of planning to plan—what Butterfield refers to as "drawing the map." What do we expect to accomplish by downsizing? What are the alternatives? How will we know when we've realized the desired results? How do we achieve a balance between reducing expenses and maintaining quality?

Chapter 1, "Planning the Plan: Drawing the Map," is an excellent guide to planning those first steps. Chapter 2, although short (only three pages), calls attention to the importance of having administrators look beyond their departmental or unit budgets and to think broadly, in terms of institution-wide budgetary concerns. She calls this process "reading the roadmap." Even though a consolidated budget offers an accurate profile of an institution's expenditures, the chapter could have been strengthened by illustrating the importance of analyzing expenditures over time in order to spot critical trends or revealing patterns.

Pivotal to the success of any management decision to downsize is the clear and effective communication of the institution's goals and objectives to employees. The lack of an effective communications strategy can stop a reduction plan in its tracks. Employees will be forced to rely on half-truths and hearsay in an effort to understand the plan for downsizing—actions that will ultimately hamper the institution's efforts, no matter how well-conceived. Chapter 3 presents a persuasive argument regarding the need to devise effective communications strategies, and offers practical guidelines for their development.

The remaining chapters detail the worksite, workforce and compensation issues affected and promulgated by plans to downsize—from contracting out auxiliary or central services, managing benefits costs, structuring early retirement incentive programs to instituting flexible work schedules for existing staff. I found the summary of key points, questions, and concerns listed at the end of most chapters extremely helpful. They provide a quick overview of each chapter and can serve as a checklist of important issues for future exploration.

The book provides a few case studies which illustrate specific strategies and approaches employed by some campuses. One of the case studies focuses on Stanford University's efforts to implement a reduction plan, while continuing to demonstrate a commitment to diversity and retain the multicultural character of the institution. This certainly is a timely topic, and institutions that have employed downsizing plans are struggling to find ways to deal with this issue. Butterfield provides practical suggestions and guidelines on how to achieve stated objectives without thwarting an institution's mandate. Although helpful, I was disappointed that a wider array of institutional types were not represented; specifically, public, four-year or two-year institutions. These institutions, given their public sponsorship and the attendant political implications, face challenges that are immediate and that can have a deleterious impact on human resources management decisions.

This book fills a significant void in the literature by moving beyond the pros and cons of which management technique to utilize—rightsizing vs. restructuring vs. reengineering, and by focusing on how, after the decision has been made, to "get there from here." It will appeal to higher education administrators who want additional information and guidance concerning the implications of downsizing on human re-

sources management. This book places those issues exactly where they belong—at the forefront of the planning process.

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Handbook

Handbook of College Teaching: Theory and Applications, by Keith W. Prichard and R. McLaran Sawyer, eds. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1994, 488 pp. $75.

Reviewed by Martin Finkelstein and Robert Seal

1. Description of the books' contents

A new handbook for college teachers has appeared that incorporates some of the most current theories and strategies for improving student learning in college and university classrooms. In the *Handbook of College Teaching: Theory and Application*, editors Prichard and Sawyer have brought together thirty-nine master practitioners of classroom teaching and compiled their best practices into a sourcebook for an academic community long on disciplinary expertise and all too short on pedagogical interest and preparation. The handbook provides a theoretical context for designing classroom activities that promote student learning in both general and discipline-specific classrooms.

The handbook is subdivided into five sections that together provide something of a comprehensive compendium of time tested teaching practices. The first section, "Psychological Foundations of Teaching and Learning," builds a framework for classroom interactions by offering different (and relatively recent) perspectives on educational psychology—cognition, motivation, epistemology, and personality. These chapters have as an underlying theme the diversity that exists between students and the need for faculty to have a storehouse of techniques to maximize students' abilities in the classroom.

Section II, "Methods of College Instruction," examines the different delivery methods used in college classrooms. Beginning with the traditional "low tech" methods of lecture and classroom discussion and ending with "high tech" television teaching, this section examines a range of teaching methods including group work and workshops; team teaching and learning; and laboratories, case methods, tutorials, and field trips. The emphasis for this section is finding the best fit between the characteristics of the student population (as delineated in Section I) with the defining characteristics of the faculty.

Section III, "Teaching Specific Academic Areas," highlights the various teaching methods used in ten academic disciplines. The authors of these chapters were selected not only because of their reputation as master teachers in their respective fields, but also because of their appreciation and application of cross-discipline teaching methods. Included in these chapters are classroom strategies for the sciences, social sciences, and humanities.

The fourth section examines some specific classroom and student challenges that face college faculty. In "Special Problems that Confront the Undergraduate Faculty Member: Classroom Settings and Student Personnel," the authors explore ways to deal with atypical classes (large and small); students with behavioral problems; academically at-risk students; and students with disabilities.

Finally, the fifth section, "The Job of Being a College Instructor," gets to the nuts-and-bolts of teaching: classroom organization, text selection, test design, and grading. These chapters are designed especially for novice faculty who need the practical skills to handle a college classroom.

2. Evaluation of the book's strengths and weaknesses

With this contribution, Prichard and Sawyer have entered what is becoming a crowded field (and competitive market) of resource works on teaching and learning for college faculty, including most recently, the ninth edition of Wilbert McKeachie's *Teaching Tips* (Heath, 1994) and Barbara Davis' *Tools for Teaching* (Jossey-Bass, 1993) as well as Bette Eriksen's more specialized

handbook for *Teaching College Freshmen* (Jossey-Bass, 1991). As the only edited volume among all of these (although McKeachie has added a few chapters contributed by colleagues to this new edition), Prichard and Sawyer bring a certain strength that comes from a genuine diversity of theoretical and pedagogical perspectives: thirty-nine of them. There is, of course, a downside to that diversity of perspective and style: the volume lacks a clear and consistent voice. That means that there is a stylistic unevenness that militates against a "cover to cover" (or even beginning of section to end of section) reading as well as an instrumental unevenness in the scope and practicality of suggestions offered by the contributors.

Exacerbating this unevenness and fragmentation in voice is a stylistic homogeneity: the volume is formatted as a relatively traditional scholarly textbook. Unlike the frequent bolding of topic sentences and use of bullets typical of handbooks, generally, and freely (and effectively) employed by Gross and McKeachie, this volume's traditional first and second level subheads offers a textbook (as opposed to handbook) format and feel.

A final limitation is organizational: unlike the McKeachie and Gross volumes that tend to be organized to reflect the structure of teaching a course (the first day of class, getting and using feedback), Prichard and Sawyer tend to be doggedly topical in their organization having reserved the "real" nuts and bolts material for the last section of the volume (presumably not a value judgment on their part!).

Having said all this, we should note that this volume does make distinctive contributions to this burgeoning resource literature. First, it brings current learning and student development theory to the attention of readers in a concise and accessible way (McKeachie's treatment is tucked away in a single chapter in the back and otherwise scattered throughout the individual chapters). Second, it provides an extended and important resource on teaching in the disciplines that is virtually absent from the other volumes. These disciplinary voices have for many college faculty a particular and nonsubstitutable credibility that is likely to catch and sustain the attention of many faculty who have never read anything generic about teaching per se (and, moreover, would never consider doing so). Both of these sections have extended bibliographies that are not available in the others.

3. Description of the appropriate audience for the book.

In sum, this handbook (or, perhaps, more accurately, handbook/textbook) is not designed for leisurely reading; rather, it is most effectively used as a resource guide for those seeking information on specific topics that relate especially to the theoretical contexts for designing productive learning experiences as well as time tested strategies for teaching in the disciplines.

As a resource volume to be consulted, Prichard and Sawyer will be helpful to college faculty who lack an appreciation of learning and student development theory (and lack of the time to get an extended appreciation) or who are interested in pedagogy in their discipline. Faculty developers would do well to have a least one copy on the shelves. As a general overview of the teaching task for new faculty (including TAs) or for old hands seeking an introduction to college teaching, to be held in one hand while a syllabus or examination is being prepared in the other, the organization and style here are less suitable than McKeachie or Gross.

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Practices

Teaching Improvement Practices: Successful Strategies for Higher Education **by W. Alan Wright and Associates. Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing Company, Inc., 1995 xviii + 402 pp. $41.95**

Reviewed by Elaine Dunphy Foster

As competition for severely limited financial resources increases, institutions of higher learning are being subjected to more and more demands for accountability, cost

effectiveness, and outcomes assessment. Tax payers want to know that they are getting the maximum return for their money. Coupled with shrinking financial resources is a dramatic change in the college population. No longer are students primarily white, middle class males. Instead, two and four year colleges and universities are enrolling large numbers of students who are referred to as "non-traditional." Traditional course content and methods of delivery are not necessarily effective with these students who exhibit a range of abilities and learning styles.

One response to financial difficulties and a changing student body has been the introduction of faculty development programs on many college campuses. The thinking is that faculty need to be retrained and to learn a variety of new strategies to teach their new students. To this end, numerous books focusing on faculty development have recently been published.

One of these is *Teaching Improvement Practices: Successful Strategies for Higher Education*, a collection of fifteen articles edited by W. Alan Wright, the Executive Director of the Office of Instructional Development and Technology at Dalhousie University in Halifax, Nova Scotia. The cornerstone of the book is the title piece, "Teaching Improvement Practices: International Perspectives," by Wright and his colleague M. Carol O'Neil; the article is a study based on a multi-national survey of the perceived impact of various teaching improvement practices in higher education institutions in the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, and Australia.

Respondents ranked 36 items to indicate the confidence they had in the potential of these practices to improve the quality of teaching at their universities. Data was then grouped into nine categories and analyzed. The top four practices, considered most likely to promote teaching effectiveness, were strong leadership by deans and heads, employment policies that rewarded teaching, development opportunities and grants, and formative evaluation of instruction. Ironically a "readily accessible professional library" was ranked last at number 36. The Wright-O'Neil survey is carefully analyzed and does contain some useful insights. For people involved in designing faculty or instructional development programs or deciding where to allocate scarce resources, the article might be a good starting point.

Like the contents of other collections of this kind (Volumes edited by Frye, O'Banion, Seldin, Feldman and Paulsen come to mind), the remaining fourteen articles will vary in usefulness depending on the reader. For example, Eison and Stevens' "Faculty Development Workshops and Institutes," offers concrete advice for establishing programs and running workshops. Like the Wright-O'Neil article, it is a good resource for beginning faculty developers. Two other articles concentrate on preparing faculty to teach. Laurie Richlin stresses the responsibilities graduate schools have to train their students not only for research but also for the classroom. Milton D. Cox focuses on the development of new and junior faculty and describes in detail the Teaching Scholars Program he helped develop at Miami University in Ohio. A third article in a similar vein by Sorcinelli and Aitken describes ways in which administrators can contribute to faculty development efforts by enlisting faculty support, creating a congenial campus climate, and providing appropriate recognition and rewards.

In "Understanding Student Learning: Implications for Instructional Practice," Christopher K. Knapper reviews current learning theories including those of Perry and Piaget and learning styles such as those described by Kilb and Myers-Briggs. An article by Keith Trigwell, "Increased Faculty Understanding of Teaching," provides a similar theoretical framework.

One problem with *Teaching Improvement Practices* is its sense of audience. Many of the articles adopt the clearly divisive "us and them" tone sometimes found among professional faculty developers; this top down approach is not destined to be a success with faculty. Other articles are just as clearly intended for faculty and offer excellent hands-on advice on putting current theory into practice.

For example, four articles highlight specific pedagogical strategies. David Kaufman writes lucidly on problem-based learning, a variant of the case study approach. Elizabeth Hazel offers a rationale and suggestions for improving laboratory teaching, so vital, yet so often ignored, in science and technology based fields. Barbara J. Millis provides both philosophical and research bases for coopera-

tive learning and includes specific instructions for putting strategies into practice. Graham Gibbs proposes a variety of ways to deal productively with large classes.

In "Using the Teaching Portfolio to Improve Instruction," Seldin, Annis, and Zubizaretta explain the often misunderstood portfolio approach to faculty assessment. And, in a timely and pragmatic essay, "Promoting Teaching Inclusiveness in College Teaching," Chism and Pruitt offer guidance for faculty unfamiliar or uncomfortable with their new, non-traditional students.

The initial research done by Wright and O'Neil, while an excellent starting point, is not utilized as fully as it might be. I was hoping for much more specific material relating to the items ranked most highly by respondents. Furthermore, because they are based on different governance, funding, or structural models or grow out of different educational contexts, the British, Canadian, and Australian contributions, while informational, may not be relevant to teaching to teaching practices in this country. The reverse may also be true.

Any reader will come away from *Teaching Improvement Practices: Successful Strategies for Higher Education* with increased understanding and useful ideas. However, with so many similar books now available, a budget conscious shopper might want to survey the options before making a purchase.

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Team Teaching

***Interdisciplinary Courses and Team Teaching: New Arrangements for Learning*, by James R. Davis. Phoenix: American Council on Education and The Oryx Press, 1995, xv + 271 pp. $34.95.**

Reviewed by Jane Isenberg

Because he team taught an interdisciplinary course for five years and has served as consultant to those involved in interdisciplinary team teaching as well, James Davis is highly qualified to discuss both interdisciplinary courses and team teaching. Or, as he more succinctly puts it, "I've been there." Moreover, his extensive experience in the administration of academic affairs at both the University of Denver and Wilberforce University add credence as well as administrative insight to his words.

In Part I of this book, Davis focuses on the structure of interdisciplinary courses and the delivery of team teaching. He begins by defining terms and explaining the rationale behind offering interdisciplinary courses. In this brief but thorough discussion, he highlights the history of academic disciplines and the limits of specialization amid the complexities of the information age. Then Davis describes the organization and logistics of the "ideal" interdisciplinary team taught course. He stresses the importance of collaboration during all stages of the course's life: planning, teaching, coordinating, and testing and evaluation. This and the following sections of Part I are considerably enhanced by Davis' use of five examples from the curriculum of the University of Denver, which has a long and rich history of interdisciplinary team taught offerings. The five featured here are: *Making of the Modern Mind*; *Multiple Voices of America*; *The Origin and Evolution of Life*; *The Lawyering Process*, and *The Quality Panorama*. These courses are taught by faculty from a range of disciplines that includes music, history, business, biology, anthropology, literature, religious studies, law, accounting, marketing, and management.

In a comprehensive but brief review of the research on group work and teams, Davis describes how this data should be applied to understanding and improving what happens when faculty, long accustomed to working in isolation, begin to collaborate across the disciplines. Davis summarizes the results of research he and others have done on both faculty and student perceptions of the team teaching experience. Finally, Davis concludes Part I with a discussion of issues and problems that will affect the future of interdisciplinary team teaching.

In Part II, the reader finds a list of interdisciplinary team taught courses offered at various accredited post-secondary institu-

tions in the United States, Canada, and Mexico. Since one of the author's contentions is that interdisciplinary team taught courses occur in a particular context within the institutional framework, he groups them according to their sponsoring program (General Education, Women's Studies, or Humanities, for example). Each course listed is annotated to include the following: Title; Institution; Intended Audience; Disciplines Represented; Personnel; General Description; Distinctive Features; and the name, address, and phone and fax numbers of a Contact Person.

The carefully crafted list that makes up most of Part II is just one of the many resources the book affords to both faculty members and administrators thinking about designing an interdisciplinary team taught course. Readers will also appreciate Davis' straightforward and accessible style as he describes programs and cites research. Likewise they will welcome his evenhanded perspective.

The book raised issues in my mind about two matters of great concern to me: classroom assessment and curriculum negotiation. A survey, taken to assess student perceptions of faculty collaboration in team taught courses, seems to be the only formal assessment instrument used. Part of the template for interdisciplinary team taught courses as for any courses should include regular activities designed to assess student learning.

In response to the great effort invested in planning by team members, I wondered about the potential for student input. While planning by faculty increases their level of collaboration, in most of the courses described, it would preclude any negotiation of curriculum such as that advocated by, among others, Paolo Freire. In fact, the interdisciplinary team taught course which is, almost by definition, carefully structured beforehand may, in some cases, simply multiply the factors imposing themselves willy-nilly on the student who is systematically excluded from input into traditional curricula.

But these issues do not detract from the value of the book. It is both lucid and helpful. Davis advocates the reform implicit in interdisciplinary team teaching without zealotry and explicates its inherent complexities without pomp.

Jane Isenberg is Associate Professor of English at Hudson County Community College, Jersey City, New Jersey.

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Active Learning: The Shared Adventure of Teaching Music

By Thomas Hurley

Active learning in the arts has always been the norm. However active learning does not mean simply sitting at an instrument and playing something over and over like a machine with no intelligence, hoping that sooner or later it will be good.

IN RESPONSE to Charles Bonwell's article on active learning which appeared in *Teaching Excellence*, Vol. 4, No. 3, 1992-1993, I wrote a note to Ken Zahorski, Director of Faculty Development, protesting the idea that some educator had "discovered" the effectiveness of "active learning" in 1987. As a result of the note, Ken invited me to write an article about my own experience with so-called "active learning."

I do not disagree with Mr. Bonwell's conclusions regarding the effectiveness of active learning, but I did not find anything that was in the least new or revolutionary in teaching. It was rather amusing to see the title describe the reality of active learning in the classroom as a risky business. If that is indeed the case, then we in the Fine Arts have been living on the edge, so to speak, for centuries!

The strong feelings with which I reacted to the article are based on the fact that many academics have never accepted the Fine Arts as valid academic disciplines. These opinions are seated in a lack of knowledge of just exactly what goes on in the academic process in the Fine Arts. One cannot be an intellectual dwarf and succeed in the arts. The romantic notion of a person being born as an automaton who, without discipline or thought, can sit down at a keyboard and immediately play beautifully, or sit down at an easel and create a masterpiece, is purely myth.

There are, of course, hundreds, thousands perhaps, of the usual stories told by non-artists of the born genius who can sit down and play by ear anything you can hum, having had no training. Granted there are many who have this ability, but to well-trained artists the quality of what they do underlines the lack of training. Those engaged in following the improvisational arts professionally, such as jazz artists, know the process of highly-disciplined active learning as well, though the process is somewhat different. The University of Michigan, one of the foremost music schools in the United States, now offers master's and doctoral programs in the improvisational arts and anyone who thinks it is an easy and invalid program might wish to give it closer scrutiny and find out just how difficult it is.

"We in the Fine Arts have been living on the edge...for centuries!"

Since music is my field of teaching and performing I shall use that art for my discussion of the use of active learning. Active learning in the arts has *always* been the norm. However active learning does not mean simply sitting at an instrument and playing something over and over like a machine with no intelligence, hoping that sooner or later it will be good. Just as a student of science can hardly become a scientist without the combination of classroom learning followed by work in the laboratory, the music student must have the combination of classroom learning followed by application of that

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learning in the individual teaching studio and the practice rooom.

There are two basic components in the process of learning in the field of music: the acquisition of knowledge which enables the learner to approach the second component, the actual preparation of music for performance, in a prepared and intelligent manner.

In the teaching of the first component over the past twenty-three years, I have found that if I keep the classroom lecture mode at a minimum for dispersing the needed information, and keep the proportion of active use of the information at a maximum, the learning and the ability to apply the knowledge proceed at a much faster rate.

For example, in teaching the Comprehensive Musicianship courses I use what some might consider a reverse order of presentation. The textbook readings are assigned in such a manner that I present the material they cover in class one to two weeks prior to the due date. I then divide the class into teams of three, four, sometimes five, and they collaboratively write exercises at the chalk board based on the new material. These exercises are harmonic progressions which are perhaps closer to mathematical equations than any other comparison. There are strict rules to follow and once the rules for each exercise are mastered we go about learning exceptions and possibilities for circumventing the rules if one wishes to combine pitches in a way that would normally be prohibited by the standard rules.

In this procedure the reading assignment then becomes an enhancement, clarification, and corroboration of what we do in class. It also becomes a reference and review guide. This procedure has resulted in fewer students trying to get through the course without reading the text. Since they are already familiar with the materials and procedures, the reading becomes quite fast and easy.

"Many academics have never accepted the Fine Arts as valid academic disciplines."

In addition to the written exercises, there are other components of the course which also involve active learning. For instance, the keyboard skills portion of the course requires students to apply what they are learning toward using the keyboard as a teaching tool. The sightsinging component teaches them to mentally hear what they see on the page and vocally reproduce it using solfegge (do, re, mi, etc.) so that they are able to think in terms of tonal centers and to hear modulations. The ear-training classes teach them to write down what they hear in acceptable notation. There is a graded ear-training test given weekly.

As a culmination of this procedure students are required to write a musical composition which includes the use of the different types of harmonic/melodic techniques they have learned. This is in the nature of a term paper. It is scored, rehearsed, and performed before the class and anyone else wishing to attend in one of the theaters at the end of the second and third semesters. The success of this has grown as the students have found they feel much more comfortable when cooperating as a group. They participate in performing other students' compositions and the student composers usually prefer not to play or sing their own compositions so they are free to sit back and listen and analyze from a distance.

"One cannot be an intellectual dwarf and succeed in the arts."

One of the required texts is a basic fundamentals book which comes with a computer disk that automatically records all scores as the students complete the various exercises. The exercises are the responsibility of the student and are only checked by the faculty at mid-term and at the end of the semester so that the scores may be averaged with the other components. This activity helps the student learn the technical terminology and to speed up the mental processing of aural/visual recognition of intervallic relationships of pitches, rhythmic patterns and groups, and correct notation.

At least once during each semester a class period is devoted to discussing the value of learning and applying this material. In combination with the active nature of the learning and the immediate application, students seem to develop a growing understanding of why they are required to take this course, which takes six hours a week of their time just to attend the various components. With few exceptions they seem to enjoy the experience.

The ultimate reason for this learning is,

of course, to gain the ability to approach any piece of music one wishes to perform whether it be a solo piano piece, a vocal solo, instumental solo, or a chamber piece or a symphony of a thousand. Just as one cannot write well without some knowledge of the language in which one is writing, approaching a piece of music without a repertoire of applicable knowledge most often results in a poor performance.

Music, which was regarded by the Greeks and the Medieval philosophers and scientists as a science as well as an art, combines many of the elements of language such as inflection, punctuation, pitch, volume, rhythm, and the elements of mathematics with its combinations of pitches based on Pythagorean theory. For example, rather than just expressing "feelings" about harmonic progressions we discover *why* we have those feelings by doing harmonic tension graphs based on relative dissonance and then we apply that knowledge in the written harmonic exercises we do at the board.

Students seem to learn faster when they work in teams because they can easily discuss what they are doing and why. An important consideration here is the way in which they communicate with each other in their peer group. A well known pedagogue in the field of piano at Columbia University, Dr. Robert Pace, once made the statement in a workshop for teachers that the advantage of teaching young piano students in groups is that an eight-year-old learns much more quickly from another eight-year-old than from an adult because the two peers speak to each other in terms each can understand.

We used this technique in some of the experimental keyboard lab classes that we did with students from St. Boniface Elementary School several years ago and it worked very well. We would have various members of the class take turns helping each other. In their very practical way they cleared the conversation of all superfluous language and went straight to the point using vocabulary that was understandable to each. I later incorporated the idea of working in teams into my college comprehensive Musicianship classes and it works just as well as it did with the eight-year-olds.

Another application of active learning in music which goes on continually is that of gaining a knowledge of styles of performance practice based on reading accounts of performance for any given period in music history, and then learning in teaching studio and practice room to use this knowledge to perform a specific piece of music.

The best example of this would be learning how to execute the ornaments in the works of J.S. Bach. Bach left a written out Ornament Table which notates how they are to be played, but they do not always work that well in every application. Thus, one must consult expert opinions on the exceptions to this table if one wishes to produce an accurate and appropriate performance of a piece written three hundred years ago.

Another area in which I use the concepts of active learning is in my Piano Pedagogy course. In this course we spend the first third of the course discussing theories of learning using theories of Piaget as a basis, and reading *The Teaching of Mathematics* by Jerome Bruner as a guide for application. If one substitutes the word *music* for *mathematics* each time it appears in Bruner's text, it fits perfectly. Then we spend the second third of the course discussing what is to be taught and analyzing the nature of what is to be taught. For example, the teaching of the physical technique of playing the piano is one area that most piano teachers do not understand so we review all the writings in that area and evaluate what they have to say.

The last third of the course is devoted to analysis of the currently most used teaching series on the market and evaluations of their relative effectiveness. This is the classroom procedure, but during the entire semester each student in the course is actively teaching a minumum of three piano students on a weekly basis and each week the class discusses the effectiveness of their applications of what they are learning.

It is not through any specific genius that those of us in the arts have *discovered* the value of active learning. Teaching in the arts has always been this way by the very nature of what we are teaching. The rules of a language mean absolutely nothing unless they are actively applied to the writing and speaking of a language. Theory is fine for intellectual stimulation and exercise, but if it only remains theory then it is of little value in helping a student realize and develop a talent.

One rather exacting characteristic of

utilzing active learning techniques on a continuous basis in the classroom is that it is impossible to construct and use a set procedure that one simply repeats semester after semester. Active learning techniques necessitate continuously monitoring the understanding levels being achieved by the students in the class and, if they are progressing very quickly as some of my more recent classes have done I must have ready additional material to further clarify what they are doing or to extend the selected material beyond anticipated levels. At the same time if a class seems to have difficulty I must be prepared to slow the pace and carefully monitor how they are perceiving the material, examining my own presentations to see if the lack of progress is my fault.

> *"Active learning techniques necessitate continuously monitoring the understanding level being achieved by the students in the class...."*

In conclusion, I wish to convey a basic philosophy behind the procedures I use. Students often enjoy making humorous observations about the fact that I almost never give a yes or no, black or white answer to a question. I most often answer a question with a question, telling them that I will accept any perception or procedure so long as they can sufficiently justify the procedure and reason out their perception.

I learned this technique from a former teacher of mine whom I admired greatly, Dr. Eva Touster of the Peabody/Vanderbilt English faculty. I took a doctoral seminar in Approaches to the Novel which she taught and my only regret was that since it was a seminar I didn't get to hear nearly as much from her as I wished because we who were students were responsible for conducting the discussions. When she did speak, however, it was generally a question which opened up exciting and seemingly endless vistas of possibilities.

This is a particular kind of active learning where the student is acquainted with a certain portion of material and through questions strategically asked is led forward in ways that can be irresistible. Dr. Touster told us at the beginning of the seminar that she could not teach us literature, but that she could acquaint us with approaches that would make it possible for us to approach it and learn about it for ourselves. Following that experience I took every graduate course in the Peabody catalog which she taught.

For many years one of the stated goals of St. Norbert College has been to encourage each student to be a self-educating person so that the learning process continues after the completion of a college degree and, in fact, continues through life. I feel very strongly that students will learn with a minimum of protest and will continue learning and using what they get in college if their experience is active in ways that help them not only see the value of the learning in progress, but, also through repetition of the procedures, to have a procedure learned and in place which they can use for their own purposes.

I will close with a short anecdote to illustrate my last comment. One evening I found myself sitting next to a former student and his wife at a concert and after saying the usual hellos I asked him what he was doing professionally. He said he was teaching choral music at the middle school level and went on to volunteer that he was glad that he had taken an advanced analysis course in music which I taught because, much to his surprise, it had turned out to be one of his most valuable and applicable experiences. He was amused at the look on my face and said so and observed that the last thing I probably expected to hear was that kind of remark from a middle school choral teacher. I said that he was right and told him how much I appreciated his sharing that with me.

Thomas Hurley is a Professor in the Music Department, St. Norbert College, De Pere, Wisconsin.

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The authors shaped their practiced principles of effective teaching into a configuration for the seminars and named it a "faculty mentoring model." This mentoring model has been shared with their colleagues both within the university and at national conferences. This article will share the development of the model, describe the model, and present what the authors discovered in the use of the model.

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A Job Description for Instruction: A Foundation for Developing Instructional Behaviors and Evaluation of Performance

The process described here was used to develop a job description for instruction in higher education. The need for such a document is examined and discussed. A review of literature, legal implications, and related research served as a form of job analysis to identify relevant components of learning theory and instructional practices. The critical instructional skills, tasks, duties, responsibilities, and behaviors gleaned from the literature review were organized, summarized, and integrated into a preliminary, but comprehensive, job description. Teaching faculty served as independent judges who evaluated the job description, and using multiple criteria, made comments, recommendations and revisions to the document. The specific use of the final job description, and other applications, are discussed.

THE QUESTION of the need or usefulness of a job description for instruction in higher education arose indirectly. The central project was the development of a performance appraisal system for faculty which focused on student evaluations. A system which would produce reliable and valid results and be acceptable to faculty was the original goal. However, as any human resource management instructor or student knows, the process of performance appraisal begins with the fundamental function of job analysis which leads to job descriptions and specifications and *then* (and only then) to job standards and performance appraisal (Byars & Rue, 1992). The whole process, of which the job description was a necessary (but insufficient) element, is described as a minimal systems approach (Olsen, 1985).

This need for job descriptions has also been the subject of court rulings as reported by Thompson and Thompson (1982). The court was well informed about appropriate management practices as shown when it insisted that first, a job or task analysis be performed. Second, they continue, information from the analysis *must* be reduced to a written task description. Finally, the courts stress the identification of tasks in the process and use various terms to denote the type of information to be identified. Some of these terms listed by Thompson and Thompson are "elements, aspects, characteristics, aptitudes, knowledge, skills, abilities, and critical incidents" (p. 873). To a great extent, court rulings deal with other than the instructional or educational arena. However, other recent articles do address these legal issues in the university setting and suggest ways to increase the probability that legal administrative decisions will be made. A thorough job analysis which would lead to a content-valid job description is the first requirement (Ber-

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nardin, Beatty & Jensen, 1980; Cascio & Bernardin, 1981).

The Job Analysis Process

The approach to developing a job description for instruction relied on a review of the literature and research related to teaching, learning, and training. While a seemingly inexhaustible reservoir of research is available and diverse ideas are the rule, there is much room to establish a common ground for thinking and action regarding the instructional task. These areas of commonality and linked theory were examined and used as a basis for analyzing the job of instruction and formulating its description. Tasks or behaviors were added to the list where evidence in the literature was broad and multiple sources supported the inclusion. The original draft of the job description was then made a part of an opinion survey instrument and distributed to a panel of faculty members. They were asked for ideas and opinions regarding the usefulness of the document and evaluated it on a list of criteria which will be discussed later. The job description which follows was the result of this effort.

A Job Description for Instruction

In general, the instructor: analyzes the course and subject material; determines relationships and requirements for the course considering the program of study and the degree objective; establishes course objectives and plans; assembles relevant material and designs appropriate learning experiences; develops course outlines and other appropriate instructional materials; determines methods of assessment of student progress, establishes criteria of successful learning, and designs measurement devices; implements course plans; presents information, uses instructional materials and initiates other learning experiences; evaluates course progress, student learning, and revises learning processes as indicated; controls the classroom environment to promote learning; supervises classroom behavior of students. All of the above tasks are performed independently of direct supervision (Charles, 1976, McKeachie, 1973; Stewart, 1975).

Specific Duties and Responsibilities

Course content specification and planning.

1. Identifies and specifies course objectives (Balch, 1981; Bloom, 1956; Mager, 1962; Stewart, 1975).

2. Determines learning outcomes (Bloom, 1956; Gronlund, 1970; Mager, 1962).

3. Describes learning outcomes in terms of changes in student behavior, knowledge, skills, ability or other observable or measurable change (Bloom, 1956; Gronlund, 1970).

4. Develops course structure to facilitate learning by logical arrangement of the learning outcomes or their elemental subparts (Briggs, 1970; Cascio, 1982; Charles, 1976).

5. Designs and develops instructional materials and classroom activities to supplement each other by applying the principles of learning (Briggs, 1970; Lee, 1967; Stewart, 1975).

6. Specifies assessment criteria, methods, and timing (Bloom, 1971; McKeachie, 1967).

Organizing and integrating classroom activities.

1. Evaluates and selects information presentation techniques (explanation, discussion, problem-solving, cases, audio-visuals, etc.) which best fit the course content (Beatty & Schneir, 1982; Briggs, 1970; Charles, 1976; Gage, 1963; Kraut, 1976; Schmuck & Schmuck, 1974, 1975).

2. Evaluates and integrates the psychological principles of learning (knowledge of results, reinforcement, practice, motivation, transfer, etc.) in light of the information presentation techniques and course content (Bigge & Hunt, 1980; Charles, 1976; Gage, 1963; McKeachie, 1973).

3. Evaluates and integrates opportunities for developmental student-directed learning experiences that are appropriate for the course content (Havighurst, 1953, 1974; Knowles, 1973, 1975, 1976; Nadler, 1970; Nuthall & Snook, 1973; Rogers, 1969; Schein, 1972).

4. Evaluates and selects methods of assessing the effectiveness and efficiency of the

learning process (Buros, 1974; Cascio, 1982; Charles, 1976; Lippitt & This, 1960; Stewart, 1975).

Implementing the instructional plan.

1. Establishes and maintains an appropriate rapport with the class to facilitate learning experiences (Briggs, 1970; Bigge & Hunt, 1980; McKeachie, 1967, 1973).

2. Conducts activities, learning experiences, and facilitates learning processes by applying psychological principles (Briggs, 1970; Cascio, 1982; Charles, 1976; Stewart, 1975).

3. Demonstrates competence by example and information giving, relating relevant events, questioning, answering questions, matching difficulty levels to class capabilities, skillful use of media, audio-visuals, projects, quizzes, and other appropriate instructional behaviors (Lippitt & This, 1960; Nuthall & Snook, 1973; Zigli & Patton, 1980).

4. Monitors class progress and recognizes needs of individual students (Bigge & Hunt, 1980; Charles, 1976; Eble, 1972; Lee, 1967; Seldin, 1977; Schmuck & Schmuck, 1974, 1975; Stewart, 1975),

5. Confers with, advises, assists or provides special attention for students according to their needs (Knowles, 1977; Stewart, 1975).

Evaluating the course and student progress.

1. Develops criteria for evaluation of student progress and for course content (Bloom, 1971; Cascio, 1982; McKeachie, 1967, 1973; Randall, 1960).

2. Constucts examinations which validly reflect the course content and the materials assigned, presented, or discussed in class (Bloom, 1971; Buros, 1974; Lindeman, 1967; Stewart, 1975).

3. Interprets examination results for assessment of the learning processes used and for student achievement purposes (Cascio, 1982; Randall, 1960; Stewart, 1975).

4. Develops and disseminates impartial procedures and practices for examination scoring, grading, and review (Casio, 1982; Gage, 1963; McKeachie, 1973; Olsen, 1983).

5. Develops criteria and instruments to collect data on the relevance, planning, organization, presentation, and evaluation of the instruction and content of the course (Cascio, 1982; Kerlinger, 1979; Stewart, 1975).

6. Revises course content and/or learning processes to maintain currency and effectiveness (Cascio, 1982; Killion & Kaylor, 1991; Lindeman, 1967).

The job description presented above was the final form which resulted after a panel of faculty members had evaluated and made changes to the preliminary document. The panel, functioning as independent judges, was asked to first read the draft and then use the criteria below to evaluate the usefulness of the job description as a fundamental basis for performance appraisal, salary administration, and decisions regarding retention and promotion for faculty in their instructional duties. The panel was further asked to make changes (additions, deletions, or revisions) which would improve the description of tasks to the point that agreement was possible with all criteria. The panel responded with some clarifications, terminology suggestions, and questions to the author but made no major alterations. The criteria are listed and described below:

Criterion	*Description*
Comprehensive	All or nearly all of the appropriate tasks are included.
Adequacy	The tasks are described in sufficient detail.
Application	The tasks probably apply across instructional disciplines.
Developmental	The tasks describe an evolving process which provide for improvement and change.
Clarity	The wording of the document is easy to understand.
Validity	The tasks are representative of the job content.
Utility	The document would be useful for instructors in their work.

Practical Applications

The job description for instruction may serve as the fundamental tool for the training, development, and evaluation of classroom instruction. In this case, the document was used to train appraisers of instruction and as an aid in developing valid and reliable

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behaviorally anchored rating scales (BARS) (Campbell, Dunnette, Avery & Hellerrick, 1973; Olsen, 1984). The criteria for using a critical incident in a BARS instrument was the existence of a specific link between the element(s) of the job description and the behavioral descriptor to be used as an anchor on the rating scale. This procedure insured the behavior was indeed "critical" and was supported in the literature and theory of learning. In this context, the job description, and the process used in its creation were critical to the success of the succeeding project.

In the broader context of higher education, practical applications become problematic as the systematic approach conflicts with traditional ideas about liberal educational outcomes which sometimes defy description. But if we cannot describe desired outcomes, how can they be achieved? To the extent that instructors, teachers, professors, or educators of whatever title accept responsibility for the systematic processing of information or knowledge to the benefit of learners and the greater society, then the *process* takes on even greater meaning and importance. The process begs description.

Whether this or any other job description of instruction would be found acceptable or necessary in the broad context of higher education is an open question. The logic and appeal of prescribed human resource management processes which specifically reference job analysis, job descriptions, and performance standards as antecedents to performance appraisal is irrefutable. However, the comments of one anonymous reviewer indicated that the process presented was useful and serves to improve accountability in education, but he or she would probably resist the approach in a faculty meeting.

Implications

The fundamental theories and principles of instruction are well documented in the literature. Also, widely recognized trends, such as total quality management and educational accountability (Melvin, 1991), seem to be providing incentives for demonstrating effective and efficient behavior in the classroom. The implications of developing curriculum which integrates all aspects of these theories and practices hold potential benefits for both the institutions and their students (McGreal, 1989; Zais, 1976).

In general, many who instruct in higher education have never been exposed to formal courses or received training in the theory or practice of instruction. Their mastery of their discipline may be unquestioned, but are they as knowledgeable of how to implement effective instructional practices and behaviors? To the extent that a process such as that described here or some other research-based job description can find acceptance for prescribed purposes, educational accountability may in fact be facilitated and advanced.

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By Melinda Knight & Flora McMartin

Building Community with Part-Time Faculty

This article describes a unique combination of faculty development activities for part-time faculty and a campus-wide assessment of student learning in a college writing program. This combination of activities was found to be an effective means of expanding and developing part-time faculty knowledge and skills while at the same time integrating assessment of student writing into the overall campus assessment plan. We will describe the setting for this creative solution to the special problems associated with part-time faculty and the obstacles and barriers to initiating and implementing curricular assessment and improving teaching and learning.

It is no secret that part-time faculty are the underclass of higher education. Part-time faculty go by many titles—Lecturer, Adjunct, Instructor—but they all have in common a low level of status in university communities and a disproportionate share of work, which is frequently done in isolation from the rest of the campus (Stanley & Lumpkins, 1992). Simply put, part-timers are underpaid, undervalued, and overworked. Ironically, the use of this marginalized group of faculty is on the rise, to the point where some observers predict that part-timers will become the majority of college and university instructors (Drops, 1993; Polishook & Nielson, 1990). As the numbers of part-time faculty rise, and as colleges and universities depend more and more on these faculty to provide critical teaching functions, it is clear that professional development activities directed toward these faculty are necessary to reduce isolation, improve teaching practices and methods, and strengthen their involvement as scholars in the campus community.

Many writing programs throughout the country rely on part-time faculty (or teaching assistants) to teach courses in composition, particularly at the freshman level. This pattern has persisted despite the efforts of the Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC) to end the exploitation of part-time faculty, improve the education of graduate teaching assistants, and create tenure lines for teachers of composition and administrators of writing programs. While we have been unable to make significant material and structural changes in the status of part-time writing faculty—that is, we do not foresee replacing part-time positions with tenure lines in the near future—we can offer opportunities for professional development. These opportunities not only improve the quality of teaching and learning in our program but also enhance the ability of part-time faculty to find full-time positions.

Institutional Setting

Faculty

The Expository Writing Program at the University of San Francisco is staffed with 32 part-time faculty members and one full-time, tenure-line associate professor (who holds a probationary appointment). Of the 32 part-time faculty members, 6 have Ph.D.s, 2 have

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Ed.D.s, 5 have Master of Fine Arts (M.F.A.) or Master of Arts in Writing (M.A.W.) degrees, 2 have Master's degrees in the teaching of English as a Second Language, and the rest have Master's degrees in literary studies or, in some cases, in other humanities disciplines. Two faculty members are in the process of completing doctoral dissertations. The Expository Writing faculty members have a tremendous amount of practical experience teaching writing, and some have been teaching in the program for more than 20 years. Only 4 or 5 of the faculty members have had specific training in composition and rhetoric outside of faculty development sessions sponsored through the program. Not 1 faculty member has a degree in composition studies, although 1 member has a degree in classical rhetoric (but not contemporary rhetorical theory).

The part-time faculty in the writing program could be categorized into four, not necessarily distinct groups: (1) those who have been teaching part-time for a long time and have no plans to change their status, (2) those who are primarily interested in teaching as a means of gaining supplemental income while they are engaged in creative or artistic writing projects, (3) those who hold full-time professional (but not teaching) positions elsewhere and are teaching in the program because they love teaching and, in some cases, also to gain tuition remission for family members, and (4) those who see this position as a springboard to a full-time job. For the latter group, the job can serve as an apprenticeship, to give these faculty members the experience and training necessary to move on to positions of more authority and responsibility. However, most of our faculty fall into the first three groups. For these faculty members, who have vast amounts of practical experience but little if any expertise in theory, the job, in the past, has offered little more than an insufficient salary, no benefits, and not-so-pleasant working conditions. Because we do not offer advanced degrees in either English studies or composition and rhetoric, it is difficult for our part-time faculty to see their positions as anything resembling professional development and training; Ph.D. students, in contrast, can often regard their low-paying teaching assistant jobs as a form of apprenticeship. In short, morale among some of the part-time faculty has been low for some time. Clearly, it is important to address their concerns about status even if financial issues remain untouched.

The University hired a new Writing Program Administrator (WPA) in the fall of 1992 to overhaul the entire program—including curriculum, placement exams, assessment, and faculty development. In addition, the new WPA was asked to start up new projects, including a writing center and a comprehensive writing-across-the-curriculum program for the college. The WPA established as a first priority the improvement of morale within the faculty of the Expository Writing Program. To that end, she tried to improve working conditions by providing such amenities as voice-mail, computers, and office support for all part-time faculty.

The next step in improving morale was to initiate a program of faculty development. This new program includes four components: First, a new placement vehicle trains the faculty in the techniques of holistic evaluation. Second, experimental co-curricular courses in biology and the sciences introduce the faculty to writing-across-the-curriculum theory and pedagogy. Third, the new writing center, staffed entirely by members of the part-time writing faculty, provides training in the theory and practice of individualized instruction. Finally, and most important, a project for integrating assessment into the writing curriculum enables the faculty to identify, articulate, and ultimately implement student learning outcomes in their courses. This pilot project is now serving as a model for how to develop a faculty-driven plan at the department or program level at our institution.

Mandates for Assessment

As with many colleges and universities prior to the mid-1980s, assessment at the University of San Francisco mainly focused on institutional resources or student FTEs and was directed by admissions personnel or by the small institutional research office. Little attention was given to student learning except by individual faculty and usually under the auspices of grading.

In 1989, a shift from these activities to a focus on assessment of student learning occurred at our institution. At this time, the Vice President for Academic Affairs formed a

Task Force on Assessment to further involve faculty in assessment, to increase the use of assessment results throughout the campus planning process, and to institute new assessment projects. In 1991, the campus accreditation visit took place. While the visiting team was impressed with the informal activities of the Assessment Task Force, they made several recommendations—including the need to focus assessment efforts around student learning outcomes and to formalize a campus plan. In 1993, an Assessment Coordinator was hired to further the campus's efforts around those recommendations.

At this point, the efforts of both the new Assessment Committee (formerly called the Task Force) and the Assessment Coordinator shifted from a sole focus of educating faculty around assessment issues to one of implementing pilot assessment projects. One priority for assessment was the newly re-designed General Education Curriculum (GEC). As part of this curriculum, one writing course in the Expository Writing Program was designated as a GEC course.

In 1993, the University's WPA and the Assessment Coordinator met to discuss how assessment could be introduced to the Expository Writing Program—in particular, to the GEC writing course. These discussions led to the development of a plan to assess the writing skills of students. As the plan developed it became evident that this project would have a major impact on the teaching faculty, since they were almost exclusively part-time. The emphasis of the project thus became twofold: to assess student learning outcomes and to use the assessment process as a vehicle for the professional development of the writing faculty.

Description of the Project

We applied for and received funds from the Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences for a pilot project. The funds were to be used primarily to compensate faculty for their time; by providing stipends, we were legitimizing the objective of professional development. The pilot assessment project in the Expository Writing Program was designed to be implemented in two phases. Phase I covered faculty development, assessment, and curriculum revision activities, whereas Phase II, now under way, was designed to assess the revised curricula by means of portfolios, with further faculty training. Goals for Phase I included the following for the Expository Writing Program:

- To assess course content and student learning.
- To create an assessment model for writing courses.
- To educate faculty about assessment techniques, methods, and applications and to provide them opportunities for practice.
- To improve the overall quality of the writing curriculum.
- To better integrate and connect all teaching of writing within the program and thereby improve the sequencing of courses.
- To promote writing across the curriculum.

In addition, the pilot project addressed the goals of the GEC: (1) to have an understanding of cultural diversity and a basis for informed ethical behavior; and (2) to foster the skills necessary for analytical thinking, sound research, and effective written communication. The project also addressed several goals of the College of Arts and Sciences: (1) to develop and implement a college assessment program and (2) to encourage curriculum reform and renewal.

We decided to focus on two particular sets of courses in the Expository Writing Program: (1) College Writing II, the second course of a two-semester sequence and the course that meets the GEC requirement for the University, and (2) a set of experimental co-curricular courses, Introduction to Biology and Writing and Introduction to Science and Writing. These experimental courses are linked to or were substitutes for prerequisite courses for the GEC course: Introduction to Composition and College Writing I. Table 1 lists course goals for the Expository Writing Program, and Table 2 outlines our plan for the pilot assessment project.

For each group, we conducted a semester-long seminar in classroom assessment techniques and curriculum development for all faculty teaching these courses. Participants were given readings on and about student learning outcomes and assessment (Angelo & Cross, for example), as well as

articles about teaching techniques and pedagogy. We invited all instructors teaching the courses to participate (12 for College Writing II and 3 for the co-curricular courses), and 10 actually participated (8 in College Writing II and 2 in the co-curricular courses). Since they were part-time faculty, we arranged as part of our grant proposal for a stipend of $500 each, and we also provided meals for meetings of longer than one hour.

We began with the College Writing II faculty in the fall semester of 1993 and met for short periods of time—about an hour each—in order to accommodate everyone's schedule. After the first four meetings, we had introduced faculty to the concepts and central ideas of assessment and had completed some preliminary evaluation of the courses. However, our goal of identifying student learning outcomes and developing a model for assessment was yet to be realized. After five such meetings, we switched to longer workshops, which were held on Saturdays. With the second group of faculty, those teaching the experimental co-curricular courses, we planned half-day workshops from the beginning.

The bulk of the time in the College Writing II faculty development seminar was spent educating the faculty about assessment; developing, revising, and refining the curriculum; and identifying and articulating student learning outcomes. Various assessment tools were presented, and initial discussions of the faculty centered on the use of portfolio assessment. The co-curricular faculty, by virtue of being a much smaller group, required less intense education around outcomes; in fact, we were able to move more quickly toward the actual work of identifying and articulating student learning outcomes.

Throughout each faculty development seminar, the participants considered various strategies for improving teaching. This discussion led to one unintended outcome of the seminar: Faculty were able to discuss, at length, their teaching styles and philosophies, as well as specific assignments, teaching techniques, classroom problems and solutions to those problems, and other pedagogical issues. These discussions helped develop stronger collegial relationships, as well as heightened commitment to the project.

The act of identifying student learning outcomes, along with congruent measurement tools, proved to be an extremely complex and time-consuming activity. Faculty were introduced to the rationale and philosophy of developing student learning outcomes, but they did not actually attempt to write outcomes until the end of the project. Critical to the success of articulating outcomes was the need for the participants to reach a consensus.

Another unanticipated result of this project was that the entire Expository Writing curriculum was revised to incorporate student learning outcomes and improve the sequencing of courses. We realized with the co-curricular science group that the various Expository Writing courses had no defined sequence of skill and knowledge develop-

Table 1: Expository Writing Course Goals

185	205	215
A. To develop as a writer. B. To understand the writing process. C. To analyze writing. D. To demonstrate minimum competence in college-level writing.	A. To investigate ideas. B. To learn the investigative process. C. To understand and use effective writing strategies. D. To demonstrate adequate competence in college level writing.	A. To think and read critically. B. To polish the writing and revising process. C. To discuss and explore gender issues D. To think critically. E. To celebrate cultural diversity and pluralism. F. To discuss and explore ethical and moral issues. G. To demonstrate competence in college-level writing beyond the elementary level.

Note: The experimental curricular and co-curricular courses in Biology and Writing and Science and Writing are based on these fundamental goals, as well as additional discipline- specific goals.

Table 2: Assessment Plan for the Expository Writing Project

Phase I

Course	Faculty Development	Assessment	Curriculum Revision
EW 185: Introduction to Composition EW 205: College Writing I	EW 185 and EW 205 were not included in the original project plan.		
EW 184 and 204: Biology and Writing EW 207: Science and Writing (Experimental Co-Curricular Courses)	GOAL to educate faculty about classroom and writing assessment in order to improve teaching and student learning STRATEGY • implement a semester-long seminar focusing on assessment of writing and student learning (teaching philosophy, pedagogy, and contemporary rhetorical theory and practice), teaching strategies, and student learning styles	GOAL to develop a means to assess the courses and implement a pilot assessment project STRATEGY • revise course outlines • identify student learning outcomes • determine initial strategies for improving teaching	GOAL to revise the courses to reflect the goals of the Expository Writing Program (EWP) STRATEGY • evaluate existing course goals and objectives • evaluate course "fit" with the EWP curriculum as a whole • revise course goals and objectives as needed • translate objectives into student learning outcomes
EW 215: College Writing II (GEC course)	GOAL to educate faculty about classroom and writing assessment in order to improve teaching and student learning STRATEGY • implement a semester-long seminar focusing on assessment of writing and student learning (teaching philosophy, pedagogy, and contemporary rhetorical theory and practice), teaching strategies, and student learning styles	GOAL to develop a means to assess the EW curriculum and implement a pilot assessment project STRATEGY • revise course outlines • identify student learning outcomes • determine initial strategies for improving teaching • research possible assessment tools • initiate pilot assessment project	GOAL to revise EW 215 to reflect the goals of the GEC and EWP and to articulate student learning outcomes more clearly STRATEGY • evaluate existing course goals and objectives • evaluate course "fit" with the EWP curriculum as a whole • revise course goals and objectives as needed • translate objectives into student learning outcomes

ment, and thus we could not adequately assess the co-curricular courses until we had done a thorough review and revision of the goals and objectives for the fundamental Expository Writing courses the science courses had been designed to enhance. Building on what we had already produced in the College Writing II seminar, we were able to sharpen the focus of Introduction to Composition and College Writing I. In particular, we made crucial distinctions, on which we all agreed, on the progression from writing of a more basic level to the expectations for college-level writing. Thus, we were finally able to define more clearly the goals and objectives for the co-curricular projects.

Results and Applications to Other Settings

We not only met all the goals we defined for Phase I of our project (see Table 2) but we have also accomplished much more than we had anticipated with regard to faculty development and curriculum revision. In the process of identifying and articulating student learning outcomes, we have revised the entire Expository Writing curriculum and have improved the sequencing of all these courses. Finally, we have demonstrated that part-time faculty working in small groups can (1) learn about assessment techniques and incorporate them into their classrooms; (2) im-

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Table 2: Continued

Phase II

Course	Faculty Development	Assessment	Curriculum Revision
EW 184: Introduction to Composition, Biology and Writing EW 185: Introduction to Composition	GOAL to train faculty in portfolio evaluation and workshop teaching methods STRATEGY • implement a semester-long seminar focusing on workshop methods of teaching and portfolio methods of grading and assessment	GOAL to pilot-test portfolio grading and assessment of student learning outcomes in revised EW 185 STRATEGY • conduct EW 184 and EW 185 using workshop teaching methods • pilot-test portfolio grading • pilot-test portfolio assessment of student learning outcomes	GOAL to implement revised course outlines STRATEGY • implement new courses produced in Phase I • revise courses as necessary based on assessment data from spring 1995
EW 204: College Writing I, Biology and Writing EW 205: College Writing I EW 207: College Writing I, Science and Writing	GOAL to train faculty in portfolio evaluation and workshop teaching methods STRATEGY • implement a semester-long seminar focusing on workshop methods of teaching and portfolio methods of grading and assessment	GOAL to implement portfolio grading and assessment of student learning in revised courses STRATEGY • implement portfolio grading and assessment based on pilot test in EW 184 and EW 185	GOAL to implement revised courses STRATEGY • implement new courses produced in Phase I • revise courses as necessary based on assessment data
EW 215: College Writing II (GEC course)	GOAL to train faculty in portfolio evaluation and workshop teaching methods STRATEGY • implement a semester-long seminar focusing on workshop methods of teaching and portfolio methods of grading and assessment	GOAL to implement portfolio grading and assessment of student learning in revised courses STRATEGY • implement portfolio grading and assessment based on pilot test in EW 184 and EW 185	GOAL to implement revised course outlines STRATEGY • implement new courses produced in Phase I • revise courses as necessary based on assessment data

prove the coherence of the various curricula in line with the respective missions of the program, the college, and the university; (3) promote awareness of writing across the curriculum; and (4) understand the importance of improving the quality of teaching and begin to assess individual performance.

We have also shown that such a project can identify student learning outcomes and determine criteria for assessing them. In that process, we have found ways of improving teaching and learning. We have also seen a significant improvement in the morale of the part-time faculty, as well as increased professionalism in all their work. Our pilot assessment instruments reveal that student have indeed learned what we thought we were teaching them; their feedback will also help us to further refine our approaches. Furthermore, we have now developed a model that will enable us to continue our development efforts for part-time faculty members across the disciplines.

Our project has also had some beneficial but unanticipated side benefits. Most important, the faculty participating have established rapport with each other, leading to a greater sense of pride in their work and their program; as a result, they are now working together to accomplish group-identified goals. This teamwork will have payoffs in the classroom, as the faculty share with students

the importance of collaborative learning. In addition, the faculty have become more professional in that they have learned a great deal about the theory and practice of both contemporary rhetorical theory and the research basis of assessment. The informal feedback we received from the Phase I faculty was very positive. The success of Phase I translated into strong faculty commitment for Phase II of the project, which includes implementation of portfolios as an assessment tool.

Conclusion

Faculty development is an essential component in any program to assess curricula and student learning outcomes. The results of our project demonstrate that faculty development is even more important for part-time faculty. As we have shown, the benefits of involving part-time faculty in assessment can be enormous, and these activities have greatly contributed not only to an improvement in teaching and learning, but also to a significant increase in morale and professionalism. We therefore argue that such projects can go a long ways toward building community with part-time faculty.

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By Lynne E. Anderson & John S. Carta-Falsa

Reshaping Faculty Interaction: Peer Mentoring Groups

Confronted with a faculty symposium which put them and their colleagues to sleep, the authors conversed and collaborated to present a series of seminars which they called "dialogues." The new faculty seminars utilized the principles of effective teaching which the authors had practiced in their university classrooms. The primary difference was that faculty members at the symposium were a passive audience, while faculty at the seminar interacted with one another.

The authors shaped their practiced principles of effective teaching into a configuration for the seminars and named it a "faculty mentoring model." This mentoring model has been shared with their colleagues both within the university and at national conferences. This article will share the development of the model, describe the model, and present what the authors discovered in the use of the model.

ON A HOT, HUMID FRIDAY afternoon, 30 faculty members met in a traditional setting. A podium and an overhead projector were facing the faculty as they sat in rows of chairs. The agenda was a series of six 20-minute presentations on issues confronting faculty in higher education. Light refreshments were provided.

During the presentations, faculty shifted in their seats, coughed and cleared their throats, graded papers, left the room to do personal business and never returned, filled and refilled their coffee cups; and, some, nodded off to sleep. Silence was broken only by gratuitous applause at the close of each presentation.

At the traditional midway break in the meeting, we casually shared, "What is happening here?" Then we turned to the Dean and said, "How can you stand this? We can't." Other faculty members escaped the boredom by leaving. At this point, Lynne used a collaborative exercise in the fourth presentation. However, the dye had been cast. Passivity was the norm. The sleeping audience could not awake.

In both of our minds was rolling the same thought—"something needs to change." Simultaneously, we were challenged to change the format of the meeting so that there would be less passivity and more activity. We approached the Dean requesting to conduct the next meeting. "Permission granted."

We began a series of conversations. We focused on what was amiss with the meeting. In recapturing the essence of the meeting, we noted the following: the Dean called the meeting, attendance was obligatory, each speaker prepared a manuscript which was read from the podium. There was no time for questions. Information had been disseminated in a traditional monologue with little apparent reaction. There was little flow between the faculty and the presentors. The atmosphere was formal, nonpersonal, restricted; and, seemingly, nonproductive.

Out of our conversations, these questions arose: Did the formality and the nonpersonal nature of the meeting restrict the productiv-

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ity of the faculty? What was the manner in which we, as successful teachers, handled dissemination of information to our students? Was it possible to bring elements of effective teaching into the arena of faculty development? Was it possible to extend what was happening in our classrooms and recreate it in the faculty community? What was going on for us within our classrooms? Within our classrooms, we ascertained that we:

- ***Are completely ourselves within our classrooms.*** We have no hidden agendas. In our comfortableness, we are self-accepting and project this self-acceptance to others. Students feel unconditionally accepted. In turn, the students are free to unconditionally accept us. Interestingly enough, it follows that most students are then free to accept unconditionally one another.
- ***Are facilitators who promote collaboration.*** Lessons are delivered through cooperative learning activities. Students are actively involved in the learning activities. Students who are actively involved in the learning process: are more highly motivated; learn from each other; work more productively together; build companionship; provide affirmative views of each other; and, increase their self-esteem.
- ***Are student-centered.*** John sends invitations to his students prior to the opening of a course. His course outlines are in dialogue form and are structured with an open invitation to students to assist in the development of the goals and objectives for the course. We open courses with trust-building activities which reveal similarities and differences among students. The similarities and differences of each of the students become accepted through sharing. This acceptance promotes an open, genuine dialogue among our students and opens genuine dialogue between our students and us. We address student concerns via immediate feedback vehicles, such as the one-minute bullet paper and the telegram, and we avail ourselves to students before, during class breaks, and after class. We use reflection as part of the assignment and debrief reflections of the previous class events which begin each new class. Thus, the results of joint debriefing adjust the objectives and activities of our courses.
- ***Diminish our authority within the classroom.*** We move the podium from view. We arrange class furniture in a circle with ourselves as a member of the circle. We use first names. We use adjectives that describe our personalities, starting with the first letter of all of our first names. All of us become peers engaged in learning activities. Our students are encouraged to use their own power as we, having relinquished our authority, join the student ranks in the learning process. By diminishing the barrier of authority, traditional monologues are replaced by genuine dialogue. All of us have merged into a *persona*.
- ***Use humor in teaching.*** Humor is a device that enhances memory, eases tension, relieves pain, and reduces the burden of traditionally difficult material. We highlight amusing aspects of the content and thus break down some of the barriers to learning it. We bring ourselves in as the subject of the humor, thus becoming more human and easier for our students to accept us as people. Laughter affects the respitory and cardio-vascular functions. It increases breathing rhythm, heart rate, blood pressure and muscular tension. However, as the laughter subsides, these functions drop below normal leaving the person very relaxed and ready for the introduction of traditionally difficult material. Thus, learning becomes fun. We all relax.

Effective teachers are facilitators of learning. They remove authority from the classroom. They structure collaborative/cooperative activities. They use humor. They are student-centered. They are authentic. They create a caring, respectful, trusting environment. And, they promote the enjoyment of learning. Students are empowered in their classrooms.

A Description of the Model

The stage was set. In order to facilitate the next meeting, we had to create the conditions that had worked for us in our classrooms. (1.) A warm, caring, respectful environment had to be created. (2.) Cooperative/collaborative group strategies had to be used to maximize interaction. (3.) Feedback systems had to be developed. (4.) Gatherings had to be fun!

We called our next get together, "Evening Dialogue I." The following is a description of the differences between the old meeting, called a Faculty Symposium and the new "Evening Dialogue I."

A. ***A shift from administratively driven to faculty driven.*** As faculty members, we organized and conducted the dialogue. We selected an issue for the dialogue. We planned to minimize the role of the Dean to saying a few words of welcome and then exiting. Without the Dean's presence, faculty members interacted openly without hesitation, reluctance or intimidation. Faculty members applauded at the close of the "Evening Dialogue I." Faculty members wanted to continue the format of the dialogues. When the Dean received positive comments from faculty members, he agreed to a continuation of the dialogue format. In collaboration with the Dean, the dates and times were set for future dialogues, and possible issues were suggested for them.

B. ***A shift from the formal to the informal.*** The setting for "Evening Dialogue I" was different. Instead of rows of chairs, there was a U-shaped configuration. Faculty were warmly welcomed by us. As they arrived, we engaged them in friendly conversation over coffee. A light buffet was presented in an adjacent room where tables were arranged in two large groupings to allow faculty to set family style. Formality was gone. Informality was in place.

C. ***A shift from the nonpersonal to the personal.*** Each faculty member was invited to participate in "Evening Dialogue I." In the invitation a survey was included to allow faculty to prepare for the dialogue. These actions alerted the faculty that there would be interaction and that their survey responses were important enough to require some contemplation. The first thing upon arrival for the dialogue, faculty members printed their first names on name tags. At the beginning of the dialogue, faculty members shared their names, teaching areas and positive statements about themselves.

D. ***A shift from the individual to the group.*** We randomly organized faculty members into groups through the use of playing cards. Faculty groups identified themselves by the suit of the cards, for example, the Hearts, the Clubs. The rest of the activities throughout the dialogue were designed to occur within and among these groups.

E. ***A shift from the passive to the active.*** We planned activities for faculty participation. We introduced the dialogue issue. Within the collaborative and cooperative groups, faculty members discussed the issue and developed possible resolutions. At a designated time, each group reported their possible resolutions to the group at large.

F. ***A shift from the traditional monologue to the genuine dialogue.*** A minilecture opened "Evening Dialogue I" and served as a springboard for the ensuing group dialogue. We were excited to observe the enthusiasm of the faculty members as they interacted in their groups. Faculty members moved closer to each other in their groups. They talked with each other. They actively listened to each other. They laughed with each other. They encouraged each other to expand upon their ideas. No one left the room. This was very different from what we had experienced at the earlier Faculty Symposium! Faculty members commented that they enjoyed talking with each other and sharing with faculty from other disciplines.

From that first "Evening Dialogue I," our model gained additional exposure. We organized and presented Evening Dialogues II, III, and IV, for our National University colleagues in the Southern Region. Under the support of a National University's Presidential Award, we presented our model to our Northern Region colleagues. Portions of our model have been shared with our higher education colleagues at national conferences.

Following our experiences with the model, we reflected on our colleagues' comments and made some adjustments to the model. These adjustments included: (1.) Meetings opened with immediate interaction. Minilectures were ended. (2.) Group size was defined at four members with assigned role responsibilities and rules for interaction. Complete participation was assured. (3.) A

variety of team-building activities was added to augment the trust development and bonding within a group. *(4.)* Group-forming activities were extended to include objects that triggered personal meaning and experiences. The sharing of these personal meanings and experiences started bonding within the group and facilitated concensus decision-making as they established identity agreement.

Epilogue

1. Our model is dynamic and is, thus, responsive to influence. It adjusts to incorporate divergent membership and activity. Yet, the structure of the model remains sturdy and basically the same.
2. As faculty members discuss and solve issues in groups, they come to experience each other as resources. Faculty members become a powerful support system within which professional and personal academic issues can be addressed. In this venue, faculty become less competitive, more collaborative and highly motivated. Barriers fall as faculty members become **mentors** to each other.
3. In order for faculty to collaborate productively, a special rapport has to be established. A unique set of attitudes and behaviors has to **merge** into a relationship breaking down sociological, political, psychological, and cultural barriers. Faculty members view each other as mentors.
4. Faculty who view each other as **mentors** share and utilize one another's resources. This fusion of faculty resources results in greater professional development and service to the academic community.
5. A conscious effort must be made to develop **genuine** collaborative relationships, for **genuine** relationships are the essence of collaboration.

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APPENDIX

Functioning of the Model

I. There is a planned meeting.

II. ***Formation of Peer Mentoring Groups***
Members are randomly divided into groups of four. Each group of four forms a Peer Mentoring Group.

Playing Cards. Groups of four are formed from an arrangement of the cards according to suit. Each suit represents one group of four. Members select cards from the arrangement.

III. ***Identity Agreement of Peer Mentoring Groups***
Within each group, group members discuss and reach agreement based upon what the card, geometric design, color or face means to each member of the group. This consensual exchange unifies the group and establishes group identity.

A. *Geometric Designs.* There are four like geometric shapes. Each geometric shape represents one group of four. The geometric shapes are placed in a basket. Members select shapes from the basket.
B. *Colors.* There are four squares of each color. Each color represents one group of four. Colored squares are placed in a basket. Members select colored squares from the basket.
C. *Faces.* There are four like facial expressions. Each facial expression represents one group of four. The faces are placed in a basket. Members select faces from the basket.

IV. ***Peer Mentoring Group Role Assignment.***
Specific roles of leader, timekeeper, recorder and presenter are chosen within each group. Determination of roles is based upon individual comfort levels and expertise. Group members relate preferences for role-taking and sharing group responsibilities begins.

A. *Leader.* The leader leads the group through activities.
B. *Timekeeper.* The timekeeper keeps the group on task according to the alloted time.
C. *Recorder.* The recorder records the activities of the group.
D. *Presenter.* The presenter presents the recorded group ideas on the issues to the entire group at large.

V. ***Peer Mentoring Groups Undergo Trust-Building Activities***
Step 1. In groups of four, members participate in activities designed for greater self- discovery. As members know themselves better through self-discovery activities, they develop trust, faith and respect for one another. Some of the self-discovery activities used by the authors include:

A. *Kiersey Temperament Sorter.* Each group member administers,scores, identifies the preference type, reads the type description, decideshow the description fits the member and shares this within the group.

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B. *Communication Wheel.* Each group member responds to a series of provacative statements on the communication wheel. Within each group a sharing of the answers occurs.

C. *Draw a Family.* Each group member draws his/her family. Within each group, members share their drawings and describe their relationships within the family.

D. *Colors Test.* Each group member administers, scores, interprets, and identifies the personality color, reads about the personality desciption, decides on the "fit" of the description and shares this within the group.

Step 2. Group members share their similarities/differences based upon the outcomes from one or more of the activities from Step 1. When group members have similar characteristics or interests, unconsciously they covalidate each other. Group members are connected with their similarities and are comfortable therein.

On the other hand, shared differences force group members to consciously adjust to and look at the differences in another way. These emerging differences must be meaningfully connected to retrieved, previously learned differences and integrated into a new meaningful context. Differences require *conscious* effort to establish harmony amidst diversity.

VI. ***Peer Mentoring Groups Discuss Issues and Develop Resolution***

Peer Mentoring Groups give group members a vehicle to explore issues, experiment on ideas generated about the issues and experience the germination of ideas leading to possible resolutions. The issues may be presented externally, that is, by a facilitator who initiates the issues for discussion, or the issues may evolve within the groups based upon the problems currently facing them. Issues are discussed and clarified. Needs for action are identified and presentation of action plans is readied.

VII. ***Peer Mentoring Groups Set Action Plans***

Each group presents and shares the nature of those issues and proposed resolutions to those issues with the group at large. Hence, issues are enlarged, clarified and refined. The result of this multiple-group presentation and the concurrent interaction is a consolidation of the issues and a prioritization of resolutions. Action plans are set.

VIII. ***Peer Mentoring Groups Form an Action Group and Plan Action***

Peer Mentoring Groups form an action group to structure and develop resolutions by gathering data through appropriate channels. The peer mentoring process allows members to become partners in the resolution of issues. The action group plans action.

IX. ***Action Group Presents Plan for Resolution of Issues***

The action group presents plan for resolution of issues to the appropriate authority for attention, approval, implementation or further study.

X. ***Action Group Presents Status Report on the Resolution of Issues***

Return to I. There is a planned meeting. The action group presents a status report on the resolution of issues to members.

GROUP MEETING

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By Lesley H. Parker, Alex Radloff, Jennifer Weir, & Marjan Zadnik

Case Study of A Systematic Approach to Meeting the Needs of New Faculty

This article reports a study of one university's program for meeting the professional development needs of new faculty. Both the study itself and the program upon which it focuses were carried out using an "action research" approach. The study highlights the need for such programs to have a strong theoretical and practical base, in association with ongoing monitoring and evaluation.

I was unsure of my role.
I had no real expectations.
I felt isolated.
I wanted to teach in a better way than I had been taught . . . I needed more information . . . time and resources.
I expected more structure and planning and a clearer sense of work load . . . these things took a long time to sort out.

THESE STATEMENTS were typical of the feelings and expectations of a group of faculty beginning their careers as academics, in 1994, at a relatively large Australian university (over 20,000 students and 3,000 staff). Moreover, as found recently by Martin and Ramsden (1994), such sentiments are widespread amongst new faculty in universities both in Australia and elsewhere in the world. This situation is particularly serious, because, at present, few universities make systematic provision for meeting the needs of their beginning academics. Indeed, an increasing amount of research, particularly in the United States, is revealing that new faculty tend to be, in the words of Boice (1992, p. 1) "a neglected resource". In recent times, universities and colleges, world-wide, have become alert to their responsibility to provide more effectively for this aspect of staff development. However, in both a theoretical and a practical sense, they require effective models upon which to base programs for new faculty.

In this context, the objective of the study reported in this article was to contribute to the building of theory and the improvement of practice in this area, through a case-study analysis of a program designed to meet the needs of new faculty in a systematic, responsive and ongoing fashion. Initially, this article provides some research and contextual background to the program, arguing the need for a systematic approach to the induction of new faculty and presenting the rationale for the specific program discussed here. An outline of the program design, implementation and evaluation is then provided. The article concludes by addressing the implications of this research for future practice.

Background to the Study

The Rationale for Induction Programs for New Faculty

In any profession or in any institution, the initial months of the novice's or the new recruit's career are a critical time. Large corporations in the private sector have long recognized this phenomenon and typically go to some lengths to provide a comprehensive in-

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duction program for new staff. Usually such programs orient the new recruits to the goals and expectations of the organization, provide them with specialist knowledge and skills required in the performance of their work-related tasks, and encourage them to join collegial networks encompassing both the professional and the social dimensions of their lives. The benefits of such programs, both to the organization and to the individual, are well-recognized.

Systematic, ongoing, institution-wide attention to the needs of newly recruited staff has not been, however, characteristic of universities. While many provide an initial one- or two-day orientation program, few programs are evaluated and continuing support for new faculty is either patchy or non-existent. Generally, as found by Stonebreaker (1991), support is dependent on the efforts and commitment of individual teaching departments or units within the university or on individual staff already established within departments/units. Further, as established by Martin and Ramsden (1994) in their study of courses provided for newly appointed academic staff, although many such courses have been implemented during the last decade, few of them have been evaluated and, in addition, there is no consensus about, or clear definition of, "a new staff course" (p. 2). The situation is complicated further by a variety of definitions of "new staff". Questions are raised about whether the term applies only to staff who are new to teaching in higher education, or whether it includes also staff who are new to the institution, or those who are returning to academe after a significant period of absence. It appears that staff in all of these categories are likely to share the experiences of those whose comments were used to introduce this article - experiences of isolation and of stress due to coping with new (but ill-defined) responsibilities in the context of insufficient time and resources.

In any organization, the continual presence of a group of staff who feel insecure, isolated, unsupported, overloaded, uninformed and stressed clearly is dysfunctional, both for the institution as a whole and for the people themselves, in terms of individual human happiness and job satisfaction. In contemporary universities this situation is especially problematic for a number of reasons, the first of which stems from the progressive reduction in funding of public universities. From the institutional point of view, this has resulted in an increased need for faculty to be more effective and efficient. From the individual faculty member's point of view, it has resulted in increased pressures and demands. In this context, there is less likelihood that established faculty will have the time available to provide individual support for new faculty and there is less likelihood that new faculty will be given a reduced workload during the early period of their employment to allow them to engage in professional development activities.

The second reason why new faculty should no longer remain a neglected resource lies in accountability. Increasingly, universities and their individual staff members are being held accountable for the outcomes of students' university experience. As noted more than a decade ago by Exum (1983), universities simply cannot afford to have faculty who are poor teachers. Thus, although the evidence from research such as that of Gaff (1975) is that established faculty may be difficult to change in this regard, early attention to the teaching skills of new faculty is clearly imperative. In this sense, as emphasized by Boice,

> support programs for new faculty make sense as institutional investments; the costs, both economic and human, of losing new hires to competitors or to unproductive and unhappy beginnings are clearly greater than those of setting up effective support programs.
> Boice (1992, p. xi)

The third reason also focuses specifically on the need for good teaching in universities. Although some newly recruited faculty may be skilled teachers, many lack tertiary teaching experience. Further, all are likely to lack knowledge of the institution's strategic plan for teaching and learning and of unique features of the institution which impinge on teaching and learning. In this situation, new faculty tend to adopt an approach to teaching which replicates their own experience as students and which does not take account of advances in the understanding of teaching/learning processes, or of recent developments in terms of university-wide, strategic approaches to teaching and learning. For example, a reflective practitioner model, em-

phasizing the need for on-going monitoring and action research, increasingly is being seen as fundamental to teaching and learning in higher education; few newly recruited academic staff are familiar with the model or such approaches.

The fourth reason is, in a sense, a corollary of the third. Many universities, especially in Australia, are in the process of implementing changes to their campus culture, changes involving, for example, the increased emphasis on accountability referred to above, or, in the newer universities, the development of a research culture. In this context [and again mindful of Gaff's (1975) caution regarding the difficulty of changing the attitudes of established faculty] new faculty are an important group to bring on side, as soon and as effectively as possible, in relation to any such cultural changes.

The fifth, and perhaps most compelling reason relates to the increasing heterogeneity of the student cohort. Compared with a decade or two ago, the backgrounds of today's college/university students have been shaped by a much wider variety of academic, economic, personal and political experiences. This situation demands a similarly wide range of teaching styles, much wider indeed than most faculty themselves experienced as students or have practiced in the past.

If induction programs assist in overcoming even some of the problems outlined here, their existence is justified. A further problem, however, lies in determining the most appropriate form for faculty induction programs. This problem is addressed in the next section.

The Form of Academic Staff Induction

Traditional Practices

Despite the range of compelling reasons discussed above, progress in determining the most effective means of support for new faculty has been limited. Several of the references cited earlier in this article provide a source of ideas regarding the conduct of academic staff induction programs. Most sources tend to focus on practical tips about the variety of possible programs in terms of format (e. g. a weekly seminar, a weekend retreat, etc), or in terms of content (e. g. specific assistance with research, travel funds or personal computers). Some, such as Stonebreaker's (1991), make useful recommendations, particularly concerning the need to structure induction programs in modules of three or so hours and to arrange these modules according to participants' needs. In addition, Gaff (1975) emphasizes the need to overcome institutional inertia towards staff development initiatives, although he offers little advice in regard to how this might be done. He does, however, note the importance of linking staff development programs to a reward structure, including non-material rewards such as praise and time release.

The Need for a Theoretical Base

Although virtually all of the ideas to be gleaned from previous research are based soundly in practice, much of the work in this area has been atheoretical. As noted by Menges and Mathis (1988), this lack of a sound theoretical base acts as a serious deterrent to progress. In this context, two attempts to provide a theoretical basis for the provision of academic staff development are especially important. The first, by Boice (1992) is the IRSS model, focused on the four elements of

- involvement (I)
- regimen (R)
- self-management (S), and
- social networking (S).

Boice's first element - involvement - refers to the need for staff to be immersed in "activities that will teach and support them" (1992, p. 12). Regimen, the second element, refers to the need for new faculty to be encouraged to plan and complete a reasonable balance of tasks pertinent to their teaching and research. Self-management, the third element, refers to the necessity for constant checking by staff to ensure that they have identified the real issues in their professional practice and are using viable means to address these issues. Finally, the term social networking is used for the fourth element, to capture the need for staff to be given, and to take, opportunities to link into networks of colleagues, essentially as sources of advice, encouragement and exemplary practice.

A second model, proposed by Menges (1993), is conceptualized around links between a core of individual characteristics (demographics, previous experience, beliefs,

knowledge and personal traits), an inner circle representing domains of work (research/scholarship, teaching, professional growth and service), and an outer circle representing the wider environment or work setting. In a report of work in progress on his New Faculty Project, Menges (1993) provides some preliminary findings from research based on his model, emphasizing several points of practical significance to those providing programs for new faculty. These are that

- there tends to be a wide range of teaching experience among newly hired staff - newly hired does not mean inexperienced;
- formal preparation for teaching is relatively rare;
- new staff see themselves as spending more time on teaching than they would prefer and more time than the institution expects;
- new faculty live with high levels of stress;
- there is a shortage of mentors for new faculty; and
- collegiality contributes to feelings of success.

Menges' ongoing research has the potential to add additional insights to our understanding of the new faculty problem. It is one of a number of studies in this area which were reported, in 1993, at a working conference sponsored by the New Jersey Institute for Collegiate Teaching and Learning (NJICTL) and the National Center on Postsecondary Teaching, Learning and Assessment (NCTLA). From the cumulative wisdom of this working conference, Weimer (1993) was able to distill four themes which were common to many of the papers presented. The themes related to

> (1) the central role of collegiality, (2) the nature of how faculty develop, (3) the emergence of learning [rather than teaching] as the point of focus, and (4) a cautious optimism with regard to faculty attitudes and motivation.
> (Weimer, 1993, p. 127)

The identification of these themes, in itself, constitutes an important advance in collective understandng of issues related to the area of professional development of faculty (especially new faculty), without which neither theory nor practice in this area is likely to progress.

The Case Study Program

Against the background outlined above, the authors of this article (staff in the Academic Staff Development Unit of the case study university) designed a semester-long faculty induction program. The aim was to meet the needs of new faculty in ways which took account, especially, of

- the involvement factor [as defined by Boice (1992)]
- the diversity of background and experience amongst new staff [as identified by Menges (1993)]
- the pressure under which new staff operate [again, as identified by Menges (1993)], and
- the collegiality factor [as emphasized by Weimer (1993) and others].

The program was planned as a follow-up to the initial three-day orientation program provided by the university and it was supported by the university's policy for *Obtaining and Keeping Good Staff*, which requires Heads to release new staff for two hours each week during their first semester, to undertake professional development activities. The purpose of the program was to provide the kinds of information and skills which tend to be generic across universities; although the intention was to draw examples from a variety of disciplines, the program as a whole was not planned to be subject specific. In a sense, it was envisaged that part of the challenge to participants in the program would involve the extent to which they could take the generic knowledge and skills and apply and exemplify these in their own disciplines.

The Action Research Approach

As described in detail elsewhere (Weir, Parker, Radloff & Zadnik, 1995), essentially, the program followed an action research model, involving continual cycles of investigation/planning, action, observation/evaluation and reflection. Action research, as defined by Kemmis and McTaggart (1988), is

> a form of collective self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the productivity, rationality and justice of their own social or educational practices, as well as their understanding of these practices,

and the situations in which the practices are carried out.

Kemmis and McTaggart describe three kinds of action research:"technical" action research, with, for example, a focus on teachers identifying, addressing and devising solutions to their own problems;"practical" action research, where each participant in a social situation is encouraged to reflect on her/his own practice and learn from that reflection;and, "critical/emancipatory" action research, where participants engage, as a group, in a process of understanding and releasing themselves from the constraints of counterproductive, limiting and unsatisfying social or institutional structures.

The use of action research in teacher professional development programs at elementary and secondary school levels is relatively common. Its application in programs for the professional development of academic staff in higher education is, however, much less common, although, as can be seen from the above definitions [and as emphasized by Zuber-Skerritt (1992)] it is ideally suited to this purpose, because of its intrinsic, ongoing reflection and evaluation. This suitability was especially obvious in the case study university, because the university's Strategic Plan for Teaching and Learning encourages, explicitly, the development of academic staff as reflective practitioners in their undergraduate and postgraduate teaching (Latchem & Parker, 1995).

The Investigation/Planning Stage:Operationalizing Boice's "Involvement"

The investigation/planning stage of the program involved a needs analysis, in a sense operationalizing Boice's (1992) involvement factor and paying heed to the core of individual characteristics and needs explicit in Menges' (1993) proposed model. As reported by Weir et al (1995), the target group for the needs analysis was a group of 27 new academic staff from across the university, who attended a three-day induction program in February, 1993. In March-April 1993, these staff responded to a questionnaire and follow-up interview aimed at determining their needs during the early months of their employment and establishing the most effective ways of meeting these needs. The findings of the needs analysis were very similar to those reported by Rust (1991) from his survey of new staff from 12 English higher education institutions and generally supportive of Boice's (1992) findings regarding new staff feelings of isolation, overload, lack of collegial support and lack of information.

The following aims for the program were developed from this needs analysis:

- to provide ongoing collegial support for new faculty
- to help reduce the feelings of isolation experienced by many new faculty
- to provide an opportunity for new faculty to gain and to share professional knowledge and experience and
- to provide the kinds of information and skills which tend to be generic across universities.

The design of the program was based on Boud and Prosser's (1980) model, which is a participative, learner-centred model, in which participants play the major role in designing and, if necessary, progressively modifying the content and processes of the program.

The Action Stage

As the first step in the action stage of the program, all staff who had joined the university between August 1993 and January 1994 were invited by letter to participate in the program of 12 weekly, two-hour sessions. After a number of preliminary enquiries, the first session, in February 1994, was attended by 17 new staff members. At this session, these 17 participants were asked to share and discuss their personal motivation for attending the sessions and their personal goals in relation to the sessions. The following program was then derived from the amalgamation of participants' personal goals:

- The role and expectations of the university teacher
- Helping students to become effective learners
- Dealing with small groups
- Dealing with large groups (especially first year students)
- Assessment
- Monitoring your own teaching
- Catering for diversity amongst students

- Identifying and using a variety of educational media
- Dealing with postgraduate students
- Compiling a teaching portfolio

Perhaps not surprisingly, given that the participating staff members were in the early weeks of a new job, these topics had a strong skills-orientation and, in action research terms, were oriented to the technical rather than the practical/reflective levels. Within the program, however, there was sufficient flexibility to ensure responsiveness to participants' emerging needs throughout the semester. This was fortunate, because although some of the original 17 participants dropped out, several other new faculty joined in the sessions at various times. A total of 18 staff members (10 males and eight females) from a wide variety of disciplines attended more than 75 percent of the sessions. In effect, no modifications were made to the actual list of topics given above - responsiveness to participants' expressed needs and issues was implemented through expansion of topics, changing ways of dealing with topics and emphasizing specific aspects of a given topic during the sessions.

Typically, three of the four authors of this article were present at all sessions. The sessions were planned to be informal and strongly interactive. Partly in an attempt to ensure that the new staff members met and learned from a variety of staff from within the university, and partly for financial reasons, all sessions were conducted by experienced staff, each of whom was an acknowledged expert in her/his area. Occasionally, extracts from videotapes also were used as a focus for discussion. Session leaders were asked to model the principles of effective adult learning and, in particular, to attempt to ensure that all participants' views, concerns and experiences were listened to and, wherever possible, addressed or discussed. Collegiality and support were fundamental to the program.

The Evaluation and Reflection Stages

The evaluation and reflection stages of the program were undertaken in a variety of ways and contexts. In a formative sense, there was continuous informal reflection by all participants (including the authors of this article). In addition, feedback was also obtained with a view to revising the program for future groups. This took the form of written and oral feedback provided by participants in the final session of the program, telephone interviews with some of the participants who left or did not complete the program and further telephone interviews, in February 1995, with some of the regular attendees at the February-June 1994 program.

Participants' Ongoing Reflections

Throughout the program, there was provision for continuous reflection and modification, in a manner consistent with the action research approach. In each session, participants were encouraged to reflect on the "week that was", to report events or initiatives of which they had been part and to raise any new issues which the group could be helpful in addressing. As indicated above, these issues, wherever possible, were accommodated within the program.

In addition, because of the participation of the authors of this article in the sessions, it was possible to informally monitor and reflect on the development of the group. Observations confirmed the growth in confidence of the regular attendees - confidence in experimenting with new strategies and confidence in reporting the outcomes of such experiments in the relatively non-threatening and receptive atmosphere provided by the sessions. Observations also confirmed, consistently, an exceptionally strong collegial atmosphere and group dynamic within the group of regular attendees. Interactions were lively and humorous. Especially in the later sessions, the use of laughter appeared to be an important element in enabling participants to release themselves from their everyday institutional constraints and to begin to devise ways to work around these constraints to minimize their own alienation. In this sense, the action research approach, in terms of the descriptors of Kemmis and McTaggart (1988), became more emancipatory than practical or technical.

Immediate Summative Feedback: Regular Attendees

As part of the final reflection/ evaluation/ future planning session in the program, 12 of

the 18 regular attendees engaged in lively discussion and provided unstructured written feedback, together with responses to a short structured questionnaire focused on the aims and content of the sessions.

Overall, the immediate summative feedback on the sessions, from the majority group who had attended regularly, was highly positive. When asked to provide three adjectives which described the program, most respondents wrote "stimulating". Other adjectives employed were "varied", "comprehensive", "innovative", "inspiring", "informative", "enjoyable", "dynamic", "active" and "real". Several participants enjoyed the serendipitous outcomes, such as finding that the strategies used by lecturers in other areas, totally unrelated to their own, were relevant or could be readily adapted to their own situation. Undoubtedly, however, the major positive outcome of the program for most participants, in an immediate sense, related to the expansion of their range of contacts on campus and to the sense of "not being alone". Further, most looked forward to the sessions and many expressed the view that they would like to see them continue. Early in the sessions, one of the participants, an enthusiastic email user, encouraged other group members to use email to keep in touch with one another. Building on this network, some of the participants planned to continue the sessions on an informal basis.

Feedback from Discontinuing Participants

Feedback also was obtained, either informally or by telephone, from six of the participants who had attended only a few of the sessions. One small group of these, who came only to the first session, indicated that they had found the open participative style of the session rather intimidating and had experienced considerable difficulty in identifying their own personal goals at this session. Others indicated that they had exercised their preference to attend only the sessions which addressed their personal needs. For some staff members, the Friday afternoon timeslot was not suitable, coming as it did at the end of a week in which they usually felt "bombed out". Some indicated that "the brain does not work well" at that time of the week. For one, the diversity of the group was a problem - he felt that his needs were "not heard". All of the discontinuing participants indicated that, in their adjustment to the university, they felt that they had been handicapped by a continuing sense of isolation.

One Year Later: Further Feedback from Regular Attendees

In February 1995, six of the regular participants (equal number of males and females) agreed to be interviewed by telephone and to answer a series of questions about their experiences during the past year, including aspects related to

- changes which had taken place in their expectations or perceptions of their role
- difficulties they had encountered
- information they would have liked to have as they progressed through the year
- areas where they would have liked more help
- advice they would give to new academic staff
- areas they anticipated needing help with in the forthcoming year
- the extent to which they now viewed themselves as reflective practitioners, and
- the impact which attendance at the progam had had on them.

Overwhelmingly, participants' answers to these questions focused on two major areas. One area concerned their continuing strong commitment to reflective practice. In this sense, they revealed a shift which, in terms of Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) could be conceptualized as a shift from the technical level to the practical level of action research, indicating, for example, that they were "always trying out things and wanting to improve, as far as possible, from the traditional style of lecturing" and "providing plenty of feedback sheets to see whether students are taking it in and to see what needs improving". The responses of several of the participants hinted that they had shifted even further into what could be termed a more emancipatory level of action research, which gave them a feeling of being "more in control" of the situation. One indicated, quite specifically, that "what has changed is the conflict between my values and the constraints I'm under" —in collaboration with

colleagues, she was finding ways to work within and minimize her constraints.

The second area which stood out in participants' responses was one which also had been an important outcome of the program initially. There was a clear indication that a major long-term outcome of the program concerned its impact on participants in terms of Boice's concept of "social networking". Participants reiterated their earlier expressions of appreciation of the contact with others, the opportunity to network and the opportunity to share information across the whole university.

Another area where the participants indicated change or development during their first year was that which, in Boice's (1992) terms, would be categorized as regimen. They tended to have moved beyond an over-riding concern with the skills of teaching/learning to a broader concept of their roles and a recognition of needing assistance on a wider scale, encompassing the other three areas critical to advancement at the university - research and development, community service and leadership.

Overall, participants had a clear idea of their needs in the forthcoming year. No longer were these staff members the hesitant, unsure neophytes whose comments opened this article. They had a much better idea of their roles and appeared to know what was necessary to enable them to carry out these roles effectively and to their own personal satisfaction. Most intended to seek help with supervision, research and publishing. Others were going to take advantage of support available within the university, for example, learning about SPSS or about being a member of a selection panel to appoint new staff. Several mentioned the need for continuing networking and dissemination of information to increase further their repertoire of strategies for course development/administration, teaching/learning and assessment. Two suggested that a regular institution-wide bulletin would be especially helpful in this regard.

Finally, with respect to advice to new staff, it was clear that access to information was regarded as the most critical factor. As one particpant expressed his advice to new staff:

> *Make sure that you participate in the staff induction week and the [program of 12] follow-up sessions. Make sure you get a policy and administration manual and make sure you read it as soon as you arrive.*

Summary and Implications for Future Work in This Area

Implications for Theory-Building

This study has added to the information base for those planning and implementing induction programs for new faculty. It has also contributed to the building of a much needed sound theoretical basis in this critical area of university/college activity. It has confirmed that an action research is highly appropriate in this area, partly because the action research model provides a framework for ongoing reflection and evaluation - essential elements which frequently are missing from programs for new faculty. It also has affirmed some of the directions of other contemporary research, as reported, for example by Weimer (1993).

More specifically, in terms of Boice's (1992) IRSS model, this analysis confirmed the paramount importance of "involvement" (particularly in relation to the needs analysis from which the aims of the program were derived and the responsiveness which was a fundamental aspect of the program) and of "social networking". The analysis suggests that these dimensions probably take precedence over Boice's other dimensions of "self-management" and "regimen", which were not obvious at the early stage of development of most of the faculty involved in this program. Indeed, the informal, non-threatening aspects of the program appeared to have been more important in this case. Overall, the findings of this analysis hint at the possibility that theory framed as a developmental model may be most appropriate to research and practice in this area. A continuation of this research is planned, to explore further this possibility.

Implications for Practice

The program analyzed here appears to have been highly successful in achieving its aims—aims which themselves were derived from an analysis of the needs of new staff. The program's success may be due to its reflection of many of the attributes of other successful programs recorded in the literature, attributes such as an informal, non-threatening environment, sessions built around the diverse expressed needs and interests of participants, emphasis on valuing individual participants' experiences, sharing of ideas across discipline areas, opportunities in sessions to discuss issues and topics of immediate concern and, above all, collegiality and recognition of the pressure under which new staff operate.

It is relevant that, coincidentally with this study (and unbeknown to the authors), an Australia-wide project, involving 10 universities, was being conducted (Martin & Ramsden, 1994). The following major conclusion of that project reinforces many of the findings of the study reported here:

> The results support recent movements towards longer programs which incorporate ideas about reflective practice as a key component of professional effectiveness. Short programs in teaching techniques which are not integrated into other aspects of academic work, and which ignore the needs of new staff for continuing social support are not as effective as extended professional experience programs which involve long-term interaction with colleagues.
> (Martin & Ramsden, 1994, p. v)

With revisions based on the feedback from participants, the program analyzed in this article is becoming an established part of academic staff development at the case study university. Some of the modifications made to date involve the inclusion, wherever possible, of more videotaped or live examples of innovative teaching strategies. One relatively major change relates to the first session: rather than ask participants to articulate their goals and expectations (which many find difficult to do so early in their careers as academics) a "tentative" list of session topics is circulated, in advance, taking care to leave sufficient space in the program to accommodate participants' needs at the point when they have the understanding and confidence to articulate those needs. A second relatively major change relates to the point made by Gaff (1975) regarding the need for programs such as this to be linked to a reward structure. Following negotiations with the university's Faculty of Education, a Graduate Certificate in Higher Education has now been approved, with a structure that can accommodate the 12-week "reflective practice" program for credit purposes. Staff undertaking the program for credit are introduced, very early in the piece, to the concept of a teaching portfolio and are required to submit their portfolio for assessment at the end of the program.

In almost any university, one is bound to find a range of needs amongst new faculty. Although many of these needs are discipline-specific, feedback from participants in this program, as in the case of other documented programs, confirms that generic knowledge and skills nevertheless have an important place in programs for the professional development of new faculty. If nothing else, the generic approach acts to broaden faculty members' perspectives and to reduce the kinds of insularity which can be counterproductive within a large institution.

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By Lisa D. Morano, Joan L. Brenchley-Jackson, William E. Davis

Videotaping with a Colleague: Practical Guidelines for Improving Teaching Effectiveness

Recognizing the anxiety and hesitation often associated with being videotaped, instructors should consider videotaping each other's teaching and then viewing the tapes together. This article begins by elaborating on using video as a tool and downplaying the evaluative nature of video. It continues with suggestions for instructors on finding a video partner, guidelines for equipment set up, considerations during taping, and hints on how to interpret what both partners see during a playback.

Introduction

THE WELL KNOWN aphorism "misery loves company" may be the key to successfully using video as a tool for teaching improvement. While anticipating a videotaping often produces misery in those who are interested in improving but are unsure about being recorded, the company of an equally vulnerable colleague can significantly reduce the fear and mystique associated with video. In many programs designed to improve classroom teaching, the use of videotaping is often central, highly structured and clearly evaluative (Prather, 1995; Rudge, 1994; Kerwin and Rhodes 1993; Ronkowski 1987). The prominence of video inflates its importance and results in unnecessary anxiety and hesitancy to participate. We suggest a way to get video out of the potentially daunting environment of instructional development programs and into the hands of colleagues committed to helping each other improve as teachers.

When video is promoted merely as a device to collect information, rather than demonstrate flaws or document excellence, apprehension about being taped is reduced and video can truly be a very useful tool for teaching improvement. Instructors videotaping each other's teaching and then viewing the tapes together can lead to important discussions of personal teaching styles or innovative new approaches. This "How To" article may be appropriate for inclusion or excerpting in teaching newsletters, or as a handout distributed by instructional consultants: it includes suggestions for instructors on finding a video partner, guidelines for equipment set up, considerations during taping, and hints on how to interpret what both partners see during a playback. We begin by elaborating on using video as a tool and follow with several important caveats of videotaping.

The Videotape as a Tool

Videotape is a tool to collect data about teaching. The data can document your teaching quality or it can motivate you to improve your teaching. Specifically for teaching improvement, taping and viewing your video with a colleague (collecting, then analyzing and interpreting the data) can prompt fundamental questions and provide an interested audience for exploring the answers.

Before considering the discussions that video can facilitate, let us ponder three basic questions about teaching which an instructor

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might hope to answer through the use of videotape. The process of addressing each of them can be quite useful, but it is important to note that the amount of video data interpretation necessary to answer each question is different, and so then is the confidence in the answer. The first and most obvious question is, "How good are my presentation skills?" Video can easily demonstrate whether the necessary "content free" elements of presentation are adequate. Volume and clarity of speech, legibility and neatness of board work, visual impact of overheads, slides or models and non-verbal communications such as eye contact gestures and the use of available classroom area are easily collected and interpreted from video data. The second question, "Am I communicating the material to the students?" is more difficult to answer. Determining how effectively the material was communicated to the students requires considerable interpretation, but aspects of the video data do address this question. Analysis can reveal the presence or absence of complete and accurate content information and also basic oral communication elements such as logical or patterned organization, effective transitions between ideas, and summaries at the closure of topics.

Communication of information "to the students" should not be confused with the third question, which speaks to the learning environment. "Is there communication between the students and instructor?" cannot be answered directly by analyzing video data. It is not possible to pause the tape and say "There! See it. We're communicating." But viewing with a colleague may provide insight regarding communication because of other more specific questions or shared observations. Is the instructor content-centered or student-centered? Are the examples, analogies and questions relevant to students' lives and do they draw the students in? Do particular interactions between the instructor and students indicate rapport between the teacher and the class? Is there time for questions, and how are the questions handled by the instructor?

So while video cannot easily document an effective learning environment, it certainly can facilitate a great deal of discussion about what an effective environment is and how it can be achieved. What contributes to an environment of communication between students and the instructor will vary with the personality of both the teacher and the students, and may differ depending upon the topic, discipline or many other factors. We feel this is a very important aspect of teaching, but a very difficult one to assess. It will not be obvious from a video whether such an environment exists, and if it does exist, what techniques make it successful. But two colleagues, using the video to help consider their classes from the students' perspective, may give each other some insight into the creation of positive learning environments, and can certainly lead to discussions of what works and what doesn't work for different instructors and different students.

Videotape is a very powerful tool for improving teaching, but like most powerful tools it needs to be handled carefully. To do so successfully, we include the following cautionary comments for instructors contemplating videotaping, followed by some practical guidelines for going into the classroom with the video equipment to "collect the data" and then reviewing the tape to "analyze the data."

The Caveats of Videotape

Almost all teachers react negatively to videotaping.

Reactions range from basic distaste to absolute terror. There may be two reasons for this. First, video is very personal. It is a moving picture of yourself, and if you feel you have physical flaws or problems communicating, they will be bluntly displayed in ways you cannot deny or dismiss. Your video may highlight flaws, which can be helpful, but what is more likely is that it won't be nearly as bad as your fear.

The second reason video may have negative connotations has to do with perceiving a video as a performance. In this age of mass media, your video invites comparison to a finished product or flawless production intended to float over the air waves for millions to scrutinize. While a video may unexpectedly capture a sample of your best teaching, a Hollywood performance is not the most effective frame of reference and should be neither your goal nor your expectation. A snapshot of a real day, rather than a re-

hearsed and perfect performance, will yield more information about your teaching style and will be easier for you to find areas where you can improve.

As a snapshot sample of your teaching, video only tells one piece of a complete story.

Videotapes do not provide information about all aspects of your teaching. They do not convey anything about fairness in grading, consistency in keeping appointments, encouragement in office hours, time spent learning new material or even dedication to improving. Just as a snapshot during a sporting event cannot tell you the outcome of a game or a water sample cannot tell you everything about a river, a video cannot tell you all there is to know about you as a teacher.

Practical Guidelines

Preparing for Videotaping

Finding a video colleague.

Working with a colleague is important to generate the enthusiasm needed to try videotaping. Once chosen, a colleague can give you both an independent interpretation of the information the video records and, most importantly, is available to discuss the effectiveness of different approaches, teaching goals and future teaching directions. Instructors in your own discipline can give you information about the appropriateness and completeness of the content you teach, but any faculty members interested in improving their teaching effectiveness would be suitable.

It is also important to realize that you don't need an accomplished or award-winning partner to get the best feedback (Morano and Davis, 1995). The videotaping partnership will probably be most beneficial if both instructors want to improve, have some aspect of their teaching they are curious about, and have time to discuss solutions, new directions and opportunities for improvement. We encourage you to develop a long term "video relationship" with your colleague, if possible. Your partnership can be a commitment to continual improvement.

Deciding what and where to video.

The kind of information you are able to collect depends on the type of classroom format in which you teach. In lectures, it is most straightforward to collect information about the effectiveness of the instructor's presentation and to some extent his or her interaction with the students. In a lab setting, you may be able to get some idea of the degree to which students are actively engaged in learning, how organized the instructor is, and whether the instructor is effectively coordinating the laboratory activities. Discussion sessions can provide insight on the effectiveness of the student-instructor interactions and the level of student involvement.

Pre-taping discussion.

Discuss with your colleague what you would like to have videotaped and what will be happening in your classroom. Remind each other of the three types of questions video can help answer. Know what the instructor will be doing and what the camera operator should watch for. If there are any special interests, things to watch for or anticipated problems, share them. In addition, thinking through the logistics can help your video taping of each other go smoothly. So, before "jumping in" consider some of the logistical guidelines below.

Camera Set Up and Operation

Find a video camera.

Any camera will do as long as it has a zoom lens and can be attached to a cart or tripod to reduce movements which will be distracting both during the class and the video playback. Although a home video camera will work, many colleges have cameras that can be checked out either from a center for teaching improvement or a media services department. Remember to check if the tape length will be adequate.

Practice.

If the instructor feels terribly uncomfort-

able in front of the video camera, try a video session without students. Practice also helps the camera operator to become familiar with the equipment.

Come early.

Arrive well before class is to begin; allow about 10 minutes to set up the camera. Make sure the camera is working and is recording on the tape. As class time approaches do all of this with as little disruption as possible and be ready to tape before the instructor is ready to begin.

Alert the students.

Tell the students why the video is there by saying, "The video is a tool I am using to improve my teaching, so just ignore it." This puts to rest their concern that they or you are somehow being evaluated. This also reinforces that you are dedicated to improving your teaching, an important aspect of a student's overall perception of an instructor.

Be inconspicuous.

Keep the whole operation casual and low key. So as to be as inconspicuous as possible, start the camera taping a minute or so before the instructor begins teaching. The camera operator should not stand next to the camera, but sit at a desk beside it. Avoid moving the camera and pointing it directly at a student asking or answering a question! If the lens is set at a wider angle, all of the desired information will usually be recorded with minimal camera operations.

Position the camera where you can record the action.

The camera operator should try to set up to the side and towards the rear of the classroom. From this position, you can record students' reactions and expressions from time to time. Also, be sure that in a lab or discussion section you have some record of what the students are doing, not just the backs of heads or rear-ends over a lab bench.

Avoid back lighting.

The camera operator should try not to videotape the instructor with sunlit windows or the image from an overhead or slide projector in the background. The bright field will cause the camera's light meter to overcompensate, and the video image will be too dark. Remind the instructor before class to avoid spending too much time in front of windows or next to an overhead projector.

Frame the instructor.

When the instructor is not moving around too much, the camera operator may want to 'zoom in' to view facial expressions and gestures. However, a wider view that shows the board, some students and the instructor's interactions is the best. In addition, frame the instructor so that he or she appears to be on the edge looking into the frame, not out of it. Even putting the instructor in the middle of the frame wastes background space which could be used to show action with students or information on the board.

Move slowly.

If you need to move the camera, do it very slowly. If the instructor moves out of the field of view, then gradually catch up to him or her. It is better to have the instructor momentarily out of view than to move the camera swiftly, causing viewers of the tape to grab their chairs and yell "earthquake!"

Reviewing the Playback Together

After you have videotaped each other, arrange a time and quiet place where you can view both tapes together. Reflect on the goals you had and the three questions about teaching which video can help answer: how are my presentations skills; am I communicating the material to the students, and is there communication between the students and me? To make reviewing the playback together more effective, here are a few suggestions.

Plan your time.

Feedback is most useful when given soon after the videotaping, but more importantly

both of you should schedule enough free time and not be distracted when sitting down to view the tapes. Consider being away from your office to prevent student and telephone distractions.

Constructive criticism is essential.

Give constructive comments and suggestions. "That example clearly did not work. I wonder what might be a better way to approach that?" Such questions open up interactive discussion.

Be descriptive and specific.

Instead of saying "I liked it" you may consider "I understood what you said because your examples were simple and easy to relate to."

Discriminate between style and quality.

Try to distinguish between personal teaching styles and effectiveness. At this point a standard of "good" teaching behaviors must be used for comparison, but may be difficult to define. Describing "good" or "bad" teaching behaviors and differentiating these from personal styles is an excellent area for discussion.

Don't limit yourself.

Feedback is most effective when it is part of an on-going, long-term, cooperative process. Try to consider how difficult areas or specific concerns in your personal teaching relate to the bigger issues in teaching and what solutions are available to consider over the next month, year or over your lifetime.

One way to move from your own very personal teaching experience, to more global issues in the realm of teaching is to consider paralleling those bigger questions with concerns about your own teaching. For example, on the personal level, "How was your interaction with students?" and on a higher level, "What is the value of an interactive classroom environment and what is the most effective way to create one?" In this way, both of you can create a support system for your own continual improvement through discourse on teaching.

Conclusion

Instructors interested in improving their teaching can cooperatively use video as a tool to improve their teaching, and thereby minimize the "video terror" often associated with videotaping as part of instructional improvement or faculty development programs. But instructors should be aware of both the strengths and limitations of video, so we have provided practical guidelines for effectively using video in this way, including finding an instructor to work with, deciding the kind of information you want to collect and the logistics of set up, taping and the playback. We suggest that this can be an excellent way to encourage instructors to improve their teaching techniques and strategies, and can also be the foundation for ongoing discussions which improve teaching and revitalize the classroom.

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By John W. Murry, Jr. and James O. Hammons

An Assessment of Management Appraisal Systems in Master's (Comprehensive) Colleges and Universities

This article describes a national study of the existence and quality of management appraisal systems currently in use at a sample of 130 four-year colleges and universities classified as master's institutions (formally known as comprehensive institutions) under the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching's 1994 taxonomy of higher education. The management evaluation practices of each institution were assessed against components of an effective management appraisal system that were derived from an extensive literature review. In addition to presenting the results of this study, recommendations for developing an effective management appraisal system are provided.

IN THE LAST several decades, growing concerns for public accountability have fostered a trend to adopt formal procedures for evaluating college and university administrators (Surwill and Heywood 1976; Genova 1976; Fisher 1977; Farmer 1979; Baum 1983). By the late 1970s several professional organizations had begun to exhibit an interest in identifying problems and perspectives related to the evaluation of administrative performance (Farmer 1979). In fact, in 1976, as a result of interest in the topic of management evaluation practices member colleges of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU) commissioned a study. In their findings, Surwill and Heywood (1976) observed that, while the practice of evaluating administrators in higher education was a vital concern to institutions all across the United States very little information was available on the topic.

More recently, Seldin (1988, p. 22) has concluded that "today's increased interest in appraising administrative performance grows out of the demand for more accountability in every sector of the academic community." However, despite his (and others) admonitions about the need for performance evaluation little practical information is available about the status of management appraisal systems in colleges and universities.

This lack of information has led to a series of national studies of the management appraisal systems used by land-grant colleges and universities (Hammons and Guillory 1990; Guillory 1987) and private liberal arts institutions (Frye 1993). To date, however, no national study has assessed either the existence of or the quality of the management appraisal systems in those colleges and universities classified as master's postsecondary institutions (formerly called comprehensive institutions) under the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teach-

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ing's taxonomy of higher education. That was the goal of this study.

Methodology

The study was completed in three phases. The first phase consisted of an extensive literature review from which 87 essential components of an effective management appraisal system were derived. The single criterion for including a recommendation as an essential component was that it had been cited in the literature by five or more authors. These literature-based components had been previously identified in two earlier dissertation studies at the University of Arkansas (Guillory 1987; Frye 1993). The literature review focused on recommendations for evaluating vice presidents, deans, chairpersons, and other management personnel and included information from both business and industry sources and higher education.

The second phase involved identifying and selecting a sample of institutions and developing a questionnaire. Using the 1995 Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, a listing of all public and private master's colleges and universities was developed. This sample population, consisting of 532 institutions, was then stratified by the six regional accrediting associations and by three enrollment size categories, using enrollment figures contained in the 1995 Higher Education Directory.

After stratifying the sample population, a matrix containing 18 cells was constructed using the six accrediting associations and the three size categories. Each institution in the sample was placed in a matrix cell and the percentage each cell comprised of the total matrix was calculated. After calculating the percentages and appropriate number of institutions to be chosen from each cell, a sample comprised of 240 colleges and universities was selected by using a table of random numbers.

The questionnaire used in the study was originally developed by Hammons and Guillory (1990), revised by Frye (1993), and modified by the authors for the particular audience to be surveyed. It contained a total of 22 questions about the status of administrative evaluation practices in master's colleges and universities. The questionnaire first asked the participant institutions to state whether they had or were developing a management appraisal system, and if so, how long it had been in place, and what levels of management were evaluated. The instrument also collected information concerning purposes, criteria, standards, utilization of forms, appraisal interviews, summary reports, pilot testing, training, and orientation of new management personnel. Finally, they were asked to rate the effectiveness of their systems and to submit a copy of their appraisal plan if they felt it was exemplary. After pilot testing, the questionnaire was sent to the president or chancellor at each of the 240 institutions selected in the random sample. One hundred-thirty (54%) of those institutions returned the questionnaire and many provided copies of their management appraisal plans.

The final phase of the study consisted of tabulation of the data from the questionnaires and a content analysis of the appraisal plans of the institutions. Comparisons were made between written policies, procedures, and evaluation instruments of the institutions and the essential components of an effective management appraisal system developed beforehand.

A tremendous amount of data was generated by the study. Given limitations of space, we have chosen to report only the highlights of the study.

Major Findings

Twenty-one percent of the institutions responding to the survey reported that they did not have any form of management appraisal system in use. We believe, however, that the actual number of master's institutions without any system of management appraisal may be significantly higher than the 21% reported in this study. This conclusion is based on additional evidence collected by the authors. We contacted ten colleges and universities who were members of the random sample but who had failed to return their questionnaire. In each instance the president or chancellor stated that the institution did not have a management appraisal system, and therefore had not responded to the survey instrument. If this finding were applied to the other non-responding institutions, the actual percentage of master's colleges and

universities with no plan for evaluating administrators might be as high as 57%!

Second, of those institutions with formalized management evaluation, only 34% believed their appraisal system was effective and only 4% rated their system as very effective. The major reasons for the large number of ineffective systems became apparent when data about the systems and the plans themselves were compared with the literature-based criteria of an effective plan. For example:

- Less than one-third (27%) of the institutions had a trial run of their system before formal implementation. As a result, problems in the design of the plan were not identified and resolved prior to the institution-wide commencement of the appraisal system.
- Slightly more than half (53%) of the colleges and universities with a system in place indicated that they required any kind of formal training session for supervisors responsible for conducting performance appraisals.
- An even smaller number (35%) of the institutions provided an orientation for new administrators participating in the appraisal process.
- Only 22% of the institutions trained their supervisors in how to conduct appraisal interviews.
- Over one-third (36%) of the colleges and universities failed to state in writing the purpose(s) of their evaluation system. Of those who had a written statement, most included the improvement in administrative performance of those being evaluated as one of their main purposes.
- Although many (73%) of the institutions stated that they had written standards for evaluating the performance of their administrators, only half of the plans reviewed actually contained objectively stated standards.
- Less than half (40%) included written appeal or grievance procedures.
- Only 59% of the institutions surveyed had any provision for periodic review of their appraisal systems.
- Well over one-third (42%) of the systems had never been reviewed by legal counsel to ensure they complied with applicable federal and state nondiscrimination and due process legal requirements.

There was, however, a ray of "good news." Almost 91% of the plans contained written criteria (i.e., specific statements about the performance expected). The primary criteria (mentioned by 99% of the institutions) were performance of objectives or goals agreed to with the supervisor and performance of specific duties outlined in a position description (86% of the institutions). Also, more than three-fourths (77%) of the plans included written procedures detailing the frequency and timetable for appraisal activities.

Benefits of an Effective Management Appraisal System

Unfortunately the results of our study indicate that a significant portion, perhaps, as many as 57% of the institutions classified as master's colleges and universities under the Carnegie Foundation taxonomy, have no plan for evaluating administrators and, of those that do, most have plans that are seriously flawed. So what? To answer that question one needs to understand—and accept the potential benefits of an effective management appraisal system. As Surwill and Heywood noted in 1976, "as the complexity of higher education administration constantly increases, it is almost inevitable that administrators will stray off course from time to time; however, with the assistance of preplanned administrative evaluation procedures, the course may be more readily corrected to meet predetermined objectives" (p. 18). This observation is still true today. Numerous other reasons why effective management appraisal systems can be of practical benefit to postsecondary institutions exist. For instance they can:

1. reveal the management development needs of individual administrators to enable professional growth;
2. resolve problems related to the authority, functions, and responsibilities of administrators;
3. reduce the subjectivity of the appraisal process;
4. improve the effectiveness of administrators in achieving institutional, unit, and individual goals;
5. reduce the potential for disruptive and

expensive litigation resulting from legally flawed management evaluation;

6. allow the president and trustees to more quickly determine which administrators are unsuited for their positions;
7. provide data needed to determine rewards for outstanding management performance;
8. serve as a base, together with faculty evaluation, for meeting external accountability mandates; and
9. alleviate concerns of the faculty, who are themselves subject to annual evaluations about administrative accountability (Seldin 1988; Latham and Wexley 1994; Surwill and Heywood 1976; Webb, Montello, and Norton 1994; Brown 1985; Schneider, Beatty, and Baird 1986; Hammons and Guillory 1990; Holloway 1988; Wattenbarger 1983).

But what happens when there is no management appraisal system or the system is seriously flawed? In short, the institution loses all the positive benefits mentioned previously while simultaneously experiencing a host of negative effects.

The most noticeable result is that the managers do not receive information needed to improve as they would if a good plan were in place. Thus managers who have communication problems with their supervisors find their problems worsen without the required face-to-face discussions required in a good plan. Managers with unclear or ambiguously defined responsibilities who would find these impediments quickly removed with a good plan find they must continue to live with the ambiguity. Persons selected for management positions with little aptitude for management survive on the job by avoiding issues and not making decisions thus contributing to organizational drift. While these "don't rock the boat types" often get rewarded, good managers who are attempting to improve things fail to receive the recognition they deserve and leave administration. The final result is that the institution fails to realize the gains in effectiveness or efficiency that it would have with better management. Costs go up, quality goes down, students and parents complain, the legislature cuts funds, faculty morale suffers, and good people who can leave do so.

These results are seldom immediately visible. They often occur very gradually but the end result is the same-an organization that is significantly less able to function than it could—at a time when peak performance is called for.

Recommendations for Developing an Effective Management Appraisal System

Management personnel should be evaluated annually. Since administrators occupy an important and influential position in the overall effectiveness and efficiency of an institution, all colleges and universities should conduct annual evaluations of the performance of their management personnel—in much the same way as most now evaluate faculty.

The development of a new plan or the review of an existing management appraisal system should follow well-defined steps. As a minimum these include: developing clear, written position descriptions for all management personnel to be evaluated; establishing a performance appraisal committee; obtaining broad input from all levels of management that will be involved in the actual appraisal process; pilot-testing the plan for potential problems prior to implementation; and asking for a review by legal counsel to ensure compliance with applicable state and federal laws.

The use of consultants should be given careful consideration. The development of a valid, reliably accepted management appraisal system is a complex task. Consequently, to save time, and to ensure objectivity, institutions considering the development of a new management appraisal system should consider employing a consultant with appropriate expertise (often this expertise is available in the faculty ranks of the business school). One caution: the consultant's role is to guide the process, to keep it on track, to point out options (and their effects) and to speed up the process-not to "sell" a "packaged" product.

The purposes of the plan should be stated in writing. An effective management appraisal system requires a written statement of the intended purposes of the plan. As a

minimum, these purposes should include providing data needed for management development, providing a valid basis for rewarding performers (and removing those who are incompetent), and improving individual and institutional performance.

The plan should include clearly defined criteria and standards. To ensure validity and reliability any management appraisal system must contain written criteria and standards that are specific, objective, and clearly communicated to all management personnel involved in the process. Criteria should be related to performance of the unique responsibilities of the position, performance as a manager against a set of criteria felt to be characteristic of good management practice, the ability to establish and achieve a few significant objectives, and the ability to relate to people. Standards should be related to the stated criteria and used to measure satisfactory levels of performance.

There should be written procedures to implement the system. Clear, precise, and complete procedures for implementation of the system should be outlined in writing. These should, as a minimum, specify who is to do the evaluation, which managers are to be evaluated, the weighting of criteria; the frequency of the evaluation, the data to be collected and procedures for gathering it, the forms that will be used; a provision for a formal performance appraisal interview; the disposition of the completed reports; and upper level review.

Managers should be trained in the implementation and operation of the system. Once a management appraisal system is developed, institutions should ensure that those responsible for implementing the system are trained in its implementation and that an orientation to the system is provided to new members of the institution.

There should be a periodic review of the entire system. Colleges and universities should periodically review their management appraisal system to ensure its continued effectiveness, and acceptance. The system should be reviewed every three to five years after implementation.

Given the increased emphasis on improving institutional accountability and the escalating costs of higher education, there is literally nothing to be lost, and a great deal to be gained, from a commitment to improving management appraisal.

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Writers, College Teaching, Undergraduate Education, and Handbook

The following book reviews involve title of interest to professional development practitioners.

Writers

How Writers Journey to Comfort and Fluency **by Robert Boice; Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers. 1994, XXIV + 250 pp., $55.**

Reviewed by Kenneth T. Henson

How Writers Journey to Comfort and Fluency has six divisions, each a logical and essential step in becoming a successful writer. These include motivation, imagination, fluency, control, relating to the audience, and resilience. Written by a seasoned author, this book addresses the nuts and bolts—the practical tips that all struggling authors seek. But, because of his insights developed through six decades of writing and reflecting on writing, *How Writers Journey to Comfort and Fluency* goes beyond giving practical, how-to-do-it tips. Robert Boice explores the emotional, personal foundations to help the reader understand why each practical suggestion works.

Apart from the author's engaging style, two pedagogical features carry the reader steadily throughout the book. All aspiring authors who bother to seek a self-help book on writing want a logical, structured sequence. This book delivers this and more; clear, succinctly stated rules tell the author precisely what to do or not to do to overcome the hurdles that all writers face. But aspiring authors want and need more than directions; they need to know how to hitch up their emotions to the rules. Robert Boice understands this need because he has lived it. He achieves this connection through using hundreds of direct quotes from hundreds of authors, sharing their feelings and their methods of dealing with them.

When reading this volume, I could not help but think of a passage that Abraham Maslow wrote just weeks before his death,

> As I go back in my own life, I find my greatest education experiences, the ones I value most in retrospect, were highly personal, highly subjective, very poignant combinations of the emotional and the cognitive. Some insight was accompanied by all sorts of autonomic nervous system fireworks that felt very good at the time and which left as a reside the insight that has remained with me forever (Maslow, 1973, p. 195).

I believe Maslow would have been pleased with Mr. Boice's skillful way of tying the cognitive to the emotional.

Having taught dozens of college classes on writing for publication and having given about one hundred and fifty workshops on this topic, I could hear Robert Boice throughout this book answering the overt questions and the covertly expressed concerns of my own students. Robert Boice is first to admit that after six decades practicing this craft, he still has to work through his own emotional hang-ups. Leaders such as he instill confidence in beginning writers and give reassurance to experienced authors. Put simply, here is an author with whom all of us can relate.

Because writing is a highly personal act, the reactions to these words will vary, and this is good. The author does not attempt to make all readers use his own style but presses the readers to turn inward and think about their own personal qualities. Kahlil Gibran said, "If a teacher is indeed wise he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind." This author does a good job

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causing the readers to reflect on their own habits and feelings.

I believe writers at all stages of development can benefit from and enjoy this book. Further, I believe the book could fit nicely in a writing class, especially an advanced graduate class. But, the book does not require the support of a teacher. I also recommend it as a self-help book for the individual writer.

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College Teaching

***Improving College Teaching* by Peter Seldin and Associates; Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing Company, Inc., 1995, xiv + 273 pp, $32.95**

Reviewed by Penelope L. Lisi

Growing recognition of the need to support faculty in improving their teaching has lead, in recent years, to the authoring of numerous books about faculty development issues, research, topics, and recommended teaching strategies. The literature to date has provided "fuel" for the fires of discussion around faculty and instructional development. Seldin's and his associates' most recent book fills a niche in the literature, however, as it offers ways for those responsible for faculty development to move beyond dialogue and encourage action-taking on the part of faculty.

Seldin is well-recognized in the field of faculty development. He has gathered together twenty-two authors, many of whose names and work will also be recognized by readers, to develop a book that is practical, well-organized, thought-provoking, and easily digested. The authors make use of their own extensive experiences in supporting faculty to improve teaching, as well as current research in effective teaching, faculty and instructional development, mentoring, and so forth, to offer their recommendations for building a culture that fosters effective teaching.

The book comprises twenty chapters grouped within four parts that speak to 1) key influences on teaching quality; 2) programs to improve teaching; 3) strategies for teaching improvement; and 4) approaches to non-traditional teaching. Key influences for the authors include barriers to improvement, institutional culture, the role played by administrators, and rewards and incentives that contribute to faculty motivation to improve teaching. *Improving College Teaching*, particularly chapters in Parts One and Two, will have primary appeal for administrators, including presidents, provosts, vice presidents for academic affairs, deans, and department chairs, who are interested in "tried and true" ways to encourage action by faculty. These sections will meet the practical needs of administrators as they create or enhance existing programs to improve teaching.

Faculty will find particularly appealing those chapters offering specific skill development strategies in the areas of peer classroom observation, evaluating one's own teaching, development of student and course portfolios, and teaching through collaboration. Chapters in Part Three offer insights into the key roles played by faculty and the chairs in improving college teaching, and discusses specific activities to improve teaching, many for low- or no-cost.

Each chapter is, to a greater or lesser degree, a combination of research summaries, discussions about faculty development topics, recommended strategies, advice lists, and "stories", case studies, or narratives. This reviewer found particularly useful those sections that are, in the words of associate writer Susan Ambrose, narratives or "stories". For example, Ambrose's Chapter Seven ("Fitting Programs to Institutional Cultures: The Founding and Evolution of the University Teaching Center") provides a concise historical overview of the establishment and growth of the University Teaching Center at Carnegie Mellon University. She then outlines sixteen important lessons program de-

velopers learned through the process. Although every institution's, and every person's "story" is unique, there is much to be learned through hearing each other's stories. The "stories", case studies, and narratives give life to the research, theories, and recommendations in the book. Although some useful visuals are interspersed throughout the chapters (e.g. examples of forms for peer visitation programs, schedules for a model two-day new faculty orientation, an example of a portfolio assignment for student) other visuals would be a welcome addition.

Improving College Teaching is a compendium of twenty different perspectives about how to improve college teaching. It is not the intent of the book to be exhaustive in discussing strategies and approaches. However, because of this approach, there is not much room for elaboration is some chapters. For instance, in the chapter on diversity in the classroom, the author indicates that courses and workshops for faculty in prejudice reduction and cultural awareness might be of assistance in raising awareness about diversity. However, only one particular model is mentioned briefly. Fortunately, each chapter includes references to point the reader to additional readings.

Early in the book, Seldin cites a study (Blackburn et. al, 1980) in which 92% of nearly 300 college teachers who were surveyed believe their own teaching is above average. Although administrators and faculty in higher education might want to believe that teaching within their own institutions is above average, the probable reality is that in many institutions it's time for a critical internal examination of teaching. Seldin and his knowledgeable and experienced associates believe that the critical ingredients of effective teaching are known. It's up to administrators and faculty working together to use the collective experience, wisdom, and research in the field of faculty development to move beyond creating awareness, debate, and dialogue, and move to action. *Improving College Teaching* will provide substantial assistance in this important process.

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Undergraduate Education

***The Seven Principles in Action: Improving Undergraduate Education*, edited by Susan Rickey Hatfield; Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing Company, Inc, 1995, x + 156 pp., $23.95.**

Reviewed by John Murray

In his preface to this book, Martin Nemko, writes that "to date, despite being ever more validated, easy to remember, and widely disseminated, the Seven Principles have not been widely implemented" (p. ix). Sadly, this appears to be a correct assessment. Few college professors are conversant with the Seven Principles. Many who are, know them only as cliches or slogans and have little or no idea of how they might be implemented.

Susan Rickey Hatfield's book is an attempt to not only spread the word about the Seven Principles, but also provide some specific examples of how and where the principles have been applied within undergraduate education. The book devotes a chapter to each principle, and two chapters to inventories that allow individuals to assess how well an institution lives up to the principles. Two other chapters, written by Martin Nemko, contain advice to prospective students on how to select a college. These last two chapters, while they do not quite fit with the book, should be required reading by every high school student before the end of the tenth grade.

Each of the seven chapters is organized in a similar fashion. Each starts with an explanation of what applying the principle would involve. Each chapter tries to show that although many of the principles sound deceptively simple, their interpretation is often complex. Usually this section of the chapter is an interpretation by the chapter's author(s) of the research applicable to this particular principle and what steps or actions one would need to take to apply the particular principle. Each chapter includes a lengthy

description of one college program the author(s) believes exemplifies the principle and several very brief descriptions of other programs that apply the principle.

Because of these descriptions, this book would be a valuable addition to the bookshelf of any faculty development specialist or administrator. This work provides an easy to use guide to what some other colleges are doing to implement one or more of the Seven Principles. Increasing its reference value is the fact that following each description there is the name, address, and phone number of a contact person. (In a sign of the times, many also include E-mail addresses.)

Each chapter is authored by individuals who clearly believe in the efficacy of the principle and are strong advocates for the principle they write about. This means that each chapter is a cogent, well-written argument for implementing the particular principle. This, however, might be a double-edge sword. The author's advocacy often comes across as "preaching to the converted." While, I found their arguments convincing, non-believers might not.

A significant omission from each chapter was any reference to research data that might convince a non-believer of the efficacy of these principles. Moreover, in two of the three times the research was referenced, the citations were over twenty years old. Since the seventh principle points to the need to recognize the changing make-up of the student body, there surely must be some current applicable research. Exacerbating the lack of research to support the efficacy of the Seven Principles is the fact that although there were descriptions of programs that model one or more of the principles, there were no assessments of the effects of the programs on students' learning.

Although the reader was repeatedly assured that the Seven Principles are based on solid research, it is never cited. Being among the "converted," this reviewer is aware that there is a substantial body of research supporting each of the Seven Principles. However, this book could have a much greater impact if it had included some of the evidence many skeptical faculty are going to ask their faculty development specialist to provide.

There were two additional points about this book that I find mildly troubling. First, only two of the chapters mentioned community colleges. Yet, from my own experience, I am sure that many community colleges have implemented programs that support the Seven Principles. Community colleges have for over 30 years been devoted to excellence in teaching and are often leaders in efforts to improve teaching. Four-year colleges could learn from these efforts. Second, with one exception (Time on Task), the chapter authors often failed to provide some practical tips on how to implement the Principles. This makes the book much less valuable to classroom teachers in search of ways to implement the Seven Principles into their daily teaching.

Despite these minor concerns, I highly recommend the book to faculty development specialists and college administrators interested in encouraging the improvement of college teaching. I also suggest that some administrators buy multiple copies of the book and give it to key faculty members, maybe even forming discussion groups around the Seven Principles.

John P. Murray, Ph.D., is Associate Dean of Curriculum & Instruction at Genesee Community College, Batavia, NY.

Handbook

The New Professor's Handbook: A Guide to Teaching and Research in Engineering and Science **by Cliff I. Davidson and Susan A. Ambrose; Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing, 1994, 199 pp, $24.95**

Reviewed by Donald Zimmerman

Davidson and Ambrose have crafted an extremely informative two-part book that provides useful insights for the new professor. Part I on teaching devotes chapters to the characteristics of student learning; planning a course; conducting discussions; lecturing; preparing activities for students; exams and assignments; and working with student assistants. Part II on research includes chapters on supervising graduate research; getting funded for research projects, writing research papers, reviewing research proposals and papers, presenting talks on research

results, and conducting graduate seminar programs.

In the preface, Davidson and Ambrose point out that up to 50% of the engineering and science faculty at US colleges and universities will be retiring in the next decade. To replace these retirees, will be a cadre of new faculty members who, in many cases, may have little opportunity for mentoring support from experienced professors. Therefore, the authors provide practical guidelines based on programs from Carnegie Mellon's University's Teaching Center. And the authors point out the emerging changes in colleges and universities—primarily teaching institutions reassessing their goals and programs and primarily research institutions rethinking their teaching missions.

While *The New Professor's Handbook* was originally drafted for the newly hired professors in the engineering and sciences, all professors should find the book informative and useful.

It's an easy read and flows smoothly and full of useful guidance based on practical experience and educational research. Each chapter includes a list of the works cited, and the book closes with a bibliography for additional reading. The guidance will prove useful to anyone making the transition from a graduate student to a new professor.

Excellent points emerge throughout the book. For example the discussion on students developing subject-matter expertise is based clearly on decades of research on problem solving. The authors point out that developing expertise is intensive and time-consuming; experts have learned and can use thousands of chunks of information, and experts can process information quickly—all critical points for new professors to keep in mind as they strive to develop subject-matter expertise in their students.

For developing a course, the authors suggest eight clear guidelines: encourage active learning, design effective learning, provide prompt feedback, emphasize time and effort required, encourage faculty-student contact, encourage cooperation among students, communicate high expectations, and respect diverse talents and ways of learning. From here, the chapter provides clear guidance on planning the course and developing the syllabus.

The authors have packed each subsequent chapter on teaching with lots of useful guidance. Such guidance usually comes at the conceptual level and with few examples to illustrate the points.

Part II on research provides excellent guidance on handling research responsibilities. Chapter 8 provides a list of major funding federal government sources by basic and applied research and development. Such data provide insights when seeking funding. Useful tidbits fill the chapters. For example, the authors suggest discussing proposal ideas in-depth with agency project officers. Such good advice can help new faculty members target and refine their proposals, and carefully targeting proposals enhances their chances of being funded.

Chapter 10 on reviewing research proposals and papers provides detailed suggestions on reviewing research proposals for funding agencies and reviewing research panels. The points and guidelines covered will help new professors when first challenged by such tasks.

Overall Davidson and Ambrose provide solid, useful, guidance to the new professor. However, beginning a career at a university or college that offers only bachelors or masters degrees can be quite different from beginning a career at a doctoral-granting institution. The authors recognize the differences. In Chapter 7, on supervising graduate research, they discuss only Ph.D. research and suggest that supervising master's degree research could be quite different, but they provide few specifics. While their guidance will help all faculty members, more specifics for masters degree students would have been useful.

Further, faculty at non-doctoral-granting institutions often carry a heavier teaching load and may lack graduate student assistants. Such working conditions often makes research and publishing more difficult because of heavier teaching load, less available time for research, and fewer resources—including graduate student assistants.

Finally, many educational institutions evaluate faculty on teaching, research, and service. The book provides little insights into handling service responsibilities—departmental, college and university committees; outreach and community service.

Despite the minor limitations, *The New Professor's Handbook* provides useful guid-

ance for all new professors. Whatever the nature of the educational institution, new professors who invest time in reading it and can apply conceptual guidance on teaching and research will find its content extremely useful. And experienced professors will find the content will help them sharpen both their teaching and research and in mentoring new faculty members. Deans and department chairs should invest in *The New Professor's Handbook* for their new hires.

Donald E. Zimmerman is a Professor in the Department of Technical Journalism, Center for Research on Writing & Communication Technologies at Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO.

Pirate Ship Pedagogy

By Peter Galvin

Reading pirate journals is a kind of research that quickly degenerates into frivolous reverie.

"THAT WHICH often Spurs men on to the undertaking of the most difficult Adventures is the sacred hunger of Gold; and twas Gold was the bait that tempted a Pack of merry Boys of us...." So begins a seventeenth-century chronicle of one of the most celebrated buccaneer capers in the annals of piracy.[1]

Reading pirate journals is a kind of research that quickly degenerates into frivolous reverie. As I pondered these lines, and twenty-nine students sitting before me contemplated their geography exam, I felt the classroom suddenly pitch to starboard. Reflexively, with my left hand I reached across the table, grabbing the tankard to keep it from spilling over, while with my right I continued jotting in the log. *Stormy weather persistent. Crew all in a funk. A month and a fortnight since we took a prize, and that laden with forty hundred-weight sacks of flour and nothing more. The gold lust is in their eyes, and the foul stench of mutiny fills the ship. We must strike again, and soon, else....*

"Mr Galvin?"

"Aye, Jenkins, what is it?"

"In the matching section? On page four? Is it okay to use the same answer twice?"

I was back in the lecture hall, safe on dry land, but left grappling with an intriguing idea. What if the classroom were run like a pirate ship?

The notion may not be so far fetched as it sounds. Buccaneers, despite their reputation for selfish recklessness, in reality cooperated democratically, with a highly developed sense of objectives, fairness, and organization. Let us, for a pleasant diversion, equate our students' fervent quest for knowledge with "the sacred hunger of Gold," and see what happens when we apply the curious conventions of seventeenth-century piracy, the buccaneers' *coutume de la cote*, to the modern classroom.

Like pirates, we would draw up a contract for the *course*, what educators would mundanely term a syllabus, but what buccaneers called the *chasse partie*, or ship's articles. At this stage the crew would agree upon a target (typically a moderately lucrative, but not too well defended, Spanish port), elect a captain (often from the ranks), lay down the rules of conduct, and devise a scale of remuneration (i.e. an equitable division of the spoils).

A fundamental difference in the classroom, apparent at the outset, is that teachers are solely responsible for the terms of their contracts (syllabi). Students are expected to submit to their course objectives, procedures, and requirements without question, yet with blithe assurance that they remain full partners in an educational contract.

According to piratical method, there would be no stack of neatly typed syllabi to distribute on the first day of class. The first order of pedagogical business would be to construct, cooperatively, a true agreement. Such an important task might consume an entire week or more of meetings. If someone offering a literary genres class really wanted to use, say, Melville, that teacher would have to be pretty convincing. Now one might argue that such a lengthy democratic process would be an unconscionable waste of time; but then, might not students better appreciate what they had chosen to study, and by the very act of choosing gain a broader appreciation of the subject?

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We might dare to extend our comparison by examining the "captaincy" of the teacher. Some pirate commanders assumed and retained their rank at the pleasure of their fellow crewmen, often as a reward for valor or strategic brilliance demonstrated in battle. Others could claim such status as owners of vessels. In neither case was the position one of great privilege; captains ate the same food, obeyed the same rules, and took the same risks as the crew. Nor was their command assured. Should the crew disagree with or lose confidence in their leader, they could—and sometimes did—elect another.

For the sake of argument and convenience, let us award command to the teacher for initial class meetings, on the basis of experience in the discipline and proprietorship, as lieutenant of the school, of the classroom. Let the students decide thereafter if and when one of their own number should take responsibility for leadership. The teacher might temporarily or permanently step down and function as one of the crew, so to speak, performing whatever tasks deemed necessary by the class.

Still other piratical procedures could apply to the classroom. An honor code? Freebooters were an example *par excellence* of honor among thieves:

> If any man shall offer to run away, or keep any secret from the company, he shall be marooned with one bottle of powder, one bottle of water, one small arm and shot.
>
> If any man shall steal anything in the company, or game, to the value of a piece of eight he shall be maroon'd or shot.[2]

Students, of course, whether or not they choose to observe it, have an equally developed (hopefully less sanguinary) sense of classroom justice, and are fully capable of formulating and enforcing their own rules. Specific guidelines of conduct and punishment might easily vary with respect to, say, the level of collaboration allowable in a math or a Latin class, just as acceptable behavior and enforcement surely varied from ship to ship. While one buccaneer crew might tolerate gambling more than another, pirates universally loathed cheaters and, above all, anyone attempting to make off with more than his share of the spoil. Customary procedures could expedite formulation of an honor code among young scholars, much as they did among the Brethren of the Coast.

Conventions also largely governed the division of booty, though particulars naturally had to be agreed upon by the entire crew. According to custom, each able bodied member of the crew received one full share. Certain individuals—the captain, ship's carpenter, quartermaster and surgeon—might retain, by common consent, an extra share or so as reward for additional service, as might persons having distinguished themselves in battle.

If, in the classroom, booty is true knowledge, it can be shared through such things as group projects and discussions, peer review, and class presentations. Knowledge becomes generally distributed, while only those who contribute more to the process gain a bit more in return. In actuality, students (and teachers) figure the reward of knowledge along a scale of grades, just as buccaneers reckoned the value of diverse spoil—gems, silver plate (and even sacks of flour)—in Spanish pieces of eight. If grades must be retained, students and teachers will simply have to agree upon a basic scale of recompense when drawing up their articles.

Such unpleasantries as grades, alas, draw us back to stark reality, where perhaps knowledge is not the bait that tempts, though, ideally, it remains the goal of students and teachers in a community of scholarship. There is, nevertheless, nothing radical about the pedagogical possibilities offered by the pirate ship model. Educational experts could easily dissect it into such familiar components as active and cooperative learning, student-centered classroom and student-driven curriculum, anticipatory set, student empowerment, and teachers as facilitators. Perhaps the only significant departure from such admirable concepts might be the extent to which we would have to apply them.

Implementing pirate ship pedagogy raises the problem of power and the question of risk. Teachers, as Linc. Fisch has pointed out, naturally fear losing control of the classroom, while students traditionally hesitate to empower themselves, preferring, out of previous conditioning or lack of experience, to leave full responsibility for the course to its appointed commander.[3]

Perhaps of more immediate concern is the fear of taking risks in the classroom. Active-learning proponent Charles Bonwell warns that any departure from the established, teacher-dominant, "straight lecturing" format may encounter resistance from students and faculty alike.[4] Students distrust change and question the extent to which they could and should rely upon one another. Teachers, typically confronting or perceiving curricular mandates from their disciplines, already hard pressed to cover an ever-increasing body of information, understandably shy away from tinkering with the status quo. Bonwell suggests that teachers start activating classes with non-threatening innovations, such as field trips, and work up to small-group projects and presentations.[5] Pirate-modeled strategies admittedly exceed by far his range of graduated, acceptable risks.

Is pirate ship pedagogy merely a whimsical ideal, or might it articulate an ultimate expression of experimental tendencies already at work in educational reform? It would be prudent, assuming the latter, to implement it methodically, one step at a time. Then again, pirates were hardly prudent. Next time the classroom lists suddenly to starboard, I may just cut the anchor, throw caution to the wind, and sound the attack on the library.

[1]Philip Ayres' published version (1684) of Bartholomew Sharp's expedition of 1680, quoted Christopher Lloyd's "Bartholomew Sharp, Buccaneer." *Mariner's Mirror (1956), Vol. 42, No.4, p.291.*

[2]From the articles of the *Revenge*, John Philips, commander, quoted in Neville William's *Captains Outrageous: Seven Centuries of Piracy.* London: Barrie and Rockliff, 1961, p.151.

[3]Linc. Fisch, "Power in College Teaching." *Teaching Excellence: Toward the Best in the Academy,* Vol. 4, No. 1, 1992-1993, distributed by POD NETWORK: A Publication of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education.

[4]Charles C. Bonwell. "Risky Business: Making Active Learning a Reality." *Teaching Excellence: Toward the Best in the Academy,* Vol. 4, No.3, 1992-1993, distributed by POD NETWORKS: A Publication of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education.

[5]*Ibid.*

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..a different view of higher education's most valuable resource

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By Christine A. Stanley, M. Erin Porter, & Borbála L. Szabó

An Exploratory Study of The Faculty Developer-Client Relationship

This study explored some elements of the faculty developer-client relationship during the consultation process. A survey of two hundred and twenty-seven faculty clients at two major research universities was conducted, yielding eighty-three usable responses. Faculty clients assessed outcomes of the faculty developer-client consultation process, priority skills for faculty developers, and characteristics of an effective consultation process. In addition to these three areas of concentration, data on the types of center services used and the gender, academic rank, tenure status, degree held, and academic discipline of faculty were gathered. The investigators suggest that this exploratory study is an initial step to understanding what faculty clients expect from the faculty developer-client relationship. Additional research needs to be conducted to see if similar expectations exist at other colleges and universities.

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY and the University of Texas at Austin are large public research universities, each having a centralized unit supporting the university's teaching mission. The Office of Faculty and TA Development at Ohio State and the Center for Teaching Effectiveness (CTE) at the University of Texas are very similar in the way they support teaching development of faculty. Like many research universities, the three part mission of teaching, research, and service often heavily emphasizes research at these two state institutions. However, for many tenure-track faculty, teaching plays an important part for promotion and tenure. For non-tenure track faculty, the emphasis on teaching is even more important as very often these individuals have heavy teaching loads. These are the two types of faculty clientele who consistently utilize faculty development services provided by both institutions.

Faculty developers bring a repertoire of skills, knowledge, experience, and expertise that contribute to a good relationship with faculty clients. In faculty development centers that offer one-on-one consultation services to faculty clients, the success of the consultation process is an important part of faculty development activities. The success or failure of these relationships become crucial for faculty development offices that seek to provide and maintain viable consultation services. While there is documentation in the literature that explains faculty developer-client relationships from the perspective of faculty developers (Brinko, 1991; Menges, 1991; Kapp, Healy, Nellisen, Mihevc, de Winter Hebron, & Watt, 1996), there are few studies that document faculty client impressions of an effective faculty developer-client relationship. Too frequently, faculty developers fail to ask faculty clients to express their expectations and outcomes concerning consult-

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ation services; instead they often initiate a standardized approach for the consultation process.

In looking at the consultation services provided to faculty in general, the investigators of this study addressed three broad areas: *outcomes, skills, and process. Outcomes* of the consultation refer to desired results faculty clients seek for a variety of issues related to classroom teaching. The outcomes of consultation are important from the perspective of clients because they expect tangible results from their visits to a faculty development center or office. For example, acceptable consultation outcomes for faculty members can range from improved student evaluation ratings to securing a selection of teaching materials.

Faculty developer *skills* serve as building blocks for consultation rapport and effectiveness. Kapp et al. (1996) cite several basic skills for an effective faculty developer, including teaching skills, communication skills, interpersonal skills, problem solving skills, and skills in developmental research. While this study explained the importance of these skills in working with clients, developing competence in the field of faculty development, and the importance of serving as a role model for clients, there was no indication of level of importance placed on these skills by faculty clients. Kapp et al. also suggests that it is important for faculty developers to establish rapport with clients and to bring about practical change in client teaching. Faculty expectations for the consultant can range from expertise in college teaching to good communication and listening skills. *Process* encompasses elements of both the skills of the consultant and potential outcomes of the consultation as a whole. Priority characteristics of the process might be confidentiality, efficiency, accessibility, and/or voluntary nature of consultation.

In striving to meet clients' needs, the investigators' exploratory survey is an attempt to answer the following questions based on outcomes, skills, and process of consultation services: (1) Who are the faculty clients that consistently use consultation services?; (2) What center consultation services are most frequently used by faculty clients?; (3) What consultation outcomes are most important to faculty clients?; (4) What faculty developer skills are most important to faculty clients?; (5) What characteristics of the consultation process are most important to faculty clients?; and (6) What other skills or characteristics contribute to an effective faculty developer-client relationship?

Another goal of this study is to add to the knowledge base about the expectations and outcomes that faculty clients have in consulting with faculty developers. Even though both campuses in the study serve both faculty and teaching associates/assistants (TAs), researchers focused on faculty clients because they are a relatively more stable population in terms of appointment. This survey study, therefore, included faculty across all ranks (N=227) (full professors, associate professors, assistant professors, lecturers, senior lecturers, instructors) and those who teach and have administrative responsibilities such as chairs or academic deans.

Method

An informal telephone survey was conducted in 1995 on both campuses (The Ohio State University and the University of Texas, Austin), to gather preliminary data on faculty impressions of center services. Twenty-five faculty members at both universities who had used the consultation services at both centers were selected at random from our recordkeeping databases. The telephone responses from these faculty provided insightful information for the evaluation of consultation services on both campuses. Faculty interest and participation was high, and their comments were helpful but not highly specific. Items in the telephone survey merely asked faculty clients to rank order a series of center services on a five-point scale from not at all important to extremely important. The telephone survey data were not helpful in determining the most important outcomes of a consultation. The telephone survey provided impetus for the development of a more thorough and specific written survey.

The survey instrument was composed of three sections: (1) faculty development services used by faculty, (2) an 18-item questionnaire of characteristics that faculty clients ranked in order of importance to assess outcomes of the consultation, skills of the consultant, and the characteristics of the consultation process, and (3) demographic

information, such as gender, rank, tenure status, highest degree held, and college appointment.

To generate the perceived importance of each of the eighteen items, faculty respondents were asked to rank all items, using each category once, on a six-point scale: 6=Top Priority; 5=Extremely Important; 4=Important; 3=Neutral or Undecided; 2=Somewhat Important; and 1=Not At All Important. In order to determine the degree of importance of a particular item, the 6, 5, and 4 responses were combined. The survey also contained two open-ended items allowing respondents the opportunity to contribute other comments and information pertinent to the eighteen items. A copy of the survey instrument is included in Appendix A.

Faculty clients chosen for this study consisted of those individuals that had used the consultation services of both campuses consistently. The investigators defined this as any faculty member who used any of the consultation services more than two times in a given year, over a total five-year period (1991-1995). These extended consultations often required several hours of requested consultation and follow-up time, demanding more than one center office visit. The investigators felt that more meaningful data would be gathered by surveying faculty clients who used consultation services on a more extended basis. Reviewing the center databases from both institutions, the investigators identified 227 faculty clients who fit this profile.

Limitations to this survey are: (1) one of the investigators discovered from her record-keeping databases that several of the clients surveyed had consulted with that investigator, and (2) the institutions that participated in this study were very similar in demographic make-up of faculty consultation service users, which may have affected the results of the survey.

Data Analysis Procedures

The investigators used descriptive and analytical procedures to explain and summarize the characteristics of the data collected. This included measures of variability and frequency distribution. Responses to each of the 18 items on the survey were analyzed and summarized to describe the importance of each item for outcomes of the consultation, skills of the consultant, and the consultation process. Of the total 227 survey instruments distributed, 111 were returned for a combined response rate of 48.8%. Of the 111 surveys that were returned from both institutions, only 83 (37%) were returned in usable form. There were 46 surveys returned from Ohio State faculty and 37 surveys returned from the University of Texas faculty.

Findings of the Study

Demographics: Who are the clients that consistently used consultation services?

The demographic distribution of faculty respondents by gender, rank, tenure status, and final degree held are shown in Table 1. The distribution of faculty respondents to the survey show that (50) 60% were female and (31) 37% were male. The majority of the respondents (36) 43% were assistant professors, with (17) 21% associate professors, (16) 19% instructors or lecturers, and 8 (10%) full professors. Eight (10%) of the faculty respon-

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Faculty Respondents
The Ohio State University and the University of Texas at Austin

	Number	Percentage
Gender		
Female	50	60.2
Male	31	37.3
No Answer	2	2.4
Rank		
Full Prof	8	9.6
Assoc Prof	17	20.5
Asst Prof	36	43.3
Instr/Lect	16	19.3
Other	6	7.2
Tenure Status		
Tenured	27	32.5
Tenure-Track	32	38.6
Non-Tenure Track	23	27.7
Other	1	1.2
Degree Held		
PhD	65	78.3
MSc	4	4.8
MA	5	6
MFA	2	2.4
BSc	1	1.2
BA	1	1.2
BFA	1	1.2
Other	4	4.8

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dents did not indicate their gender or rank. From these demographic data at Ohio State and UT Austin, one can see that the typical faculty client who consistently uses center consultation services is a female, tenure-track, assistant professor.

Services: What center services were most frequently used by faculty clients?

Respondents were asked to indicate the services that they used at both campus centers. These services included: mid-course student interviews, office consultation, phone consultation, class observation/videotaping, evaluation form consultation, and materials/resource request. The services used by faculty respondents are shown in Table 2.

Results show that of all the services provided, office consultation was used by 76% of the respondents, followed by class observation/videotaping (67%), and evaluation form (student response forms to evaluate teaching) consultation (36%). When one looks at these percentages, the high rate of office consultation is expected, given that most faculty tend to either schedule a face-to-face appointment or walk-in to talk with a consultant about a teaching concern before deciding to commit to a more in-depth plan of action. It also stands to reason that this rate is high, given that meeting with a consultant is the most common activity at the beginning or end of the consultation process. Faculty developers often begin the process by discussing center consultation services offered before conducting them and then sharing observation information during a confidential office visit following a classroom observation or videotaping.

Table 2: Services Used by Faculty Respondents The Ohio State University and the University of Texas at Austin

	Number	Percentage
Mid-Course Student Interview	23	27.7
Office Consultation	63	75.9
Phone Consultation	29	34.9
Class Observation/Videotaping	56	67.4
Evaluation Form Consultation	30	36.1
Materials/Resource Request	25	30.1
Other Services	3	3.6

Information was gathered for gender, tenure status, and academic rank for faculty clients on two campuses, The Ohio State University and The University of Texas at Austin. Tables 3, 4, and 5 reported in this article are data combined from both campuses and reported for perceptions of importance by academic rank only. Gender, tenure status, and campus-specific information are reported in the text of the article.

Outcomes: What consultation outcomes are most important to faculty clients?

Faculty respondents were given a list of six possible outcomes of a consultation and asked to rank order their importance. The outcomes listed were: (1) the extent to which I become self-analytical as a teacher; (2) the teaching resources I receive from the consultant; (3) the opportunities for follow-up I have after the consultation; (4) the extent to which the process improves my teaching; (5) the extent to which the consultation process as a whole is a positive experience; and (6) the extent to which my student evaluation ratings improve. Table 3 illustrates perceived importance of outcomes of the consultation by faculty rank. The figures shown in the Tables 3, 4, and 5 represent the number of respondents by academic rank who ranked that item as "important" to "top priority."

Eighty percent of the respondents across both institutions indicated that the most important factor in assessing a consultation was "the extent to which their teaching improved overall." Improved teaching was ranked highest by tenure-track assistant professors and also ranked as the most important outcome for associate professors and instructors/lecturers. This was expected given that a larger number of assistant professors use center services than other academic ranks. Many assistant professors seek consultation services during the first few years, as they recognize that the resources provided by faculty development centers can help in their preparation for promotion and tenure. Improved student evaluations was ranked second in order of importance, with full professors ranking it the highest among all client ranks. The least important outcomes of the consultation process for faculty clients across both institutions were (1) having an

opportunity for follow-up and (2) having access to teaching materials (mean=31%). Overall, the low rankings for both of these outcomes is somewhat surprising, because as faculty developers, we often place great emphasis on quality materials and providing follow-up for consulting faculty. Both tenure track and non-tenure track faculty clients ranked the extent to which they become self-analytical as a teacher second in order of importance to improved teaching. There were no significant differences in ranking outcomes with respect to gender, and these findings were very consistent in overall statistics from both institutions.

Table 3: Perceived Importance of Outcomes of the Consultation by Faculty Rank
The Ohio State University and the University of Texas at Austin

Rank	Number	Self Analytical	Teaching Resources	Follow-up	Improved Teaching	Positive Experience	Improved Evaluation
Full Prof	8	5 (63)	1 (13)	2 (25)	6 (75)	3 (38)	7 (88)
Assoc Prof	17	10 (59)	5 (29)	9 (53)	11 (65)	6 (35)	10 (59)
Asst Prof	36	21 (58)	14 (39)	7 (19)	35 (97)	12 (33)	19 (53)
Instr/Lect	16	10 (63)	7 (44)	4 (25)	13 (81)	6 (38)	8 (50)
No Indication	6						
Mean %		(61)	(31)	(31)	(80)	(36)	(63)
Total	83						

Note: The numbers in parentheses represent the percentage of those who ranked outcomes as "important" to "top priority"

Table 4: Perceived Importance of Skills of the Consultant by Faculty Rank
The Ohio State University and the University of Texas at Austin

Rank	Number	Expert In Teaching	College Teaching	Proficiency Evaluation	Rapport	Comm. Skills	Constructive Feedback
Full Prof	8	4 (50)	3 (38)	6 (75)	2 (25)	2 (25)	7 (88)
Assoc Prof	17	6 (35)	8 (47)	10 (59)	6 (36)	9 (53)	12 (71)
Asst Prof	36	19 (53)	15 (42)	22 (61)	8 (22)	15 (42)	28 (78)
Instr/Lect	16	8 (50)	9 (56)	8 (50)	6 (38)	7 (44)	10 (63)
No Indication	6						
Mean %		(47)	(46)	(61)	(30)	(41)	(75)
Total	83						

Note: The numbers in parentheses represent the percentage of those who ranked skills as "important" to "top priority"

Table 5: Perceived Importance of Characteristics of the Consultation Process by Faculty Rank
The Ohio State University and the University of Texas at Austin

Rank	Number	Efficient	Meet My Needs	Confidential	Accessible	Discipline Specific	Voluntary
Full Prof	8	5 (63)	5 (63)	7 (88)	2 (25)	1 (13)	4 (50)
Assoc Prof	17	7 (41)	11 (65)	9 (53)	10 (59)	8 (47)	6 (35)
Asst Prof	36	24 (67)	33 (92)	15 (42)	20 (56)	8 (22)	8 (22)
Instr/Lect	16	9 (56)	13 (81)	6 (38)	11 (69)	5 (31)	4 (25)
No Indication	6						
Mean %		(57)	(75)	(55)	(52)	(28)	(33)
Total	83						

Note: The numbers in parentheses represent the percentage of those who ranked the consultation process as "important" to "top priority"

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Skills: What faculty developer skills are most important to faculty clients?

Faculty clients were given the following list of possible skills of the faculty development consultant and asked to rank their order of importance: (1) expertise in college teaching; (2) college level classroom teaching experience; (3) proficiency with the evaluation process of teaching; (4) ability to establish a good client relationship; (5) effective communication and listening skills; and (6) ability to give constructive feedback on teaching. Table 4 illustrates faculty client data from both institutions for perceived importance of skills of the faculty development consultant by faculty rank.

Respondents from both institutions (mean=75%) ranked highest the ability of the consultant to give constructive feedback on their teaching. Responses to the open-ended questions provided some insight into how strongly faculty clients felt about providing meaningful feedback on teaching. As one faculty client from The Ohio State University stated, "The ability of the consultant to analyze the client's teaching strengths and weaknesses and to provide practical and concrete suggestions for building up areas of weaknesses is very important."

Proficiency with the evaluation process of teaching was ranked second in order of importance to giving constructive feedback. The ability of the faculty developer to establish a good client relationship was ranked lowest among all skills (30%). Two of the thirty-seven faculty clients at The University of Texas stated that the developer-client relationship was not equivalent to that of a "doctor/patient relationship" and that while they may not like some of the consultant's suggestions, improving their teaching was paramount. When one looks at institution-specific data concerning consultant skills by tenure status, statistics were very consistent across both institutions. At The Ohio State University, tenured full professor clients ranked proficiency with the evaluation process of teaching highest of all skills, while non-tenure track clients felt that it was more important that the consultant demonstrate expertise in college teaching.

It was also surprising to find that effective communication and listening skills were ranked relatively less important by faculty clients. While communication skills are of importance to faculty development consultants in working effectively with clients (Kapp et al., 1996), the results show that this is obviously not a priority concern for faculty clients. Institution-specific data show that communication skills were ranked highest (75%) by lecturers/instructors at Ohio State only.

Process: What characteristics of the consultation process are most important to faculty clients?

Faculty clients were asked to rank the following possible characteristics of an effective consultation process in order of their importance: (1) efficient; (2) focused on my needs as a teacher; (3) confidential; (4) accessible; (5) discipline-specific; and (6) voluntary. Table 5 illustrates perceived importance of characteristics of the consultation process by faculty rank.

Respondents from both institutions (mean=75%) felt that the most important overall characteristic of the consultation process is that it be "focused on their needs as a teacher." Tenure track faculty clients ranked this characteristic the highest among all faculty respondents (94%). Overall, efficiency of the process was ranked second in order of importance (mean=57%) with discipline-specific consulting as the least important characteristic (28%). Faculty clients from both institutions indicated in their open-ended comments that discipline-specific consultants would be "ideal," but they recognized that this would be hard to obtain. Confidentiality was ranked the most important characteristic of the consultation process by full professors only. There were no significant differences by gender, as rankings by men and women were very similar and consistent with combined statistics from both institutions.

What other skills or characteristics contributed to an effective faculty developer-client relationship?

Respondents were asked to comment on additional skills or characteristics that contributed to an effective faculty developer client-relationship. Several faculty clients from both institutions expressed the importance of the faculty developer's non-threatening and supportive demeanor when giving feedback on their teaching. One faculty client from The University of Texas at Austin stated that it is very important that faculty developer consultants be "able to critique one's teaching without destroying one's confidence in one's ability to teach. They should be able to give practical suggestions about how to improve teaching effectiveness." Another stated, "For some clients, when their teaching is not going well, it is embarrassing, and the extent to which they feel comfortable sharing their experience is important. Therefore, the way in which they are treated by the faculty developer is even more important." As these comments illustrated, faculty clients differed significantly in their "tolerance" for critical feedback and the need for consistently positive feedback from faculty developers.

There were several faculty clients who felt that it is important that the faculty developer client-relationship be organized as a team effort. A search of the literature in this area showed that proponents of the collaborative/process model consultation agree that clients and faculty developers should work together in the teaching improvement process (Blake & Moulton, 1983; Dalgaard, Simpson, & Carrier, 1982). As one faculty client at The Ohio State University stated, "There should be shared responsibility for evolving responses and achieving desired outcomes." Having the opportunity to consult with different faculty developers is also of importance to faculty clients. Some feel that when they consult with different faculty developers, they are better able to get different perspectives on their teaching. They feel that this opportunity allows for the exploration of "clients' and consultants' teaching styles and philosophies."

A few faculty clients at the University of Texas commented that it was important that faculty developers demonstrate proficiency with the criteria on which non-tenure track faculty are evaluated. This is not surprising, because at different institutions and within many academic departments, there are distinct sets of criteria for evaluating non-tenure and tenure track faculty. For the few clients who stated that discipline-specific consultants would be "ideal," arguments ranged from the "understanding of different departments' attitudes to teaching and teaching evaluation" to " being able to discuss problems in one's discipline with someone who has direct and extensive experience in it."

Clients from both institutions applauded the consultation services provided by the Office of Faculty and TA Development (FTAD) and The Center for Teaching Effectiveness (CTE). Clients have found feedback given on their teaching to be constructive and supportive. In retrospect, some wished that they had taken advantage of the services earlier in their teaching careers as this would have made a greater difference in their teaching development. Many have also relied on the expertise of consultants for college and departmental projects, such as developing proposals, program evaluation, curriculum development, and teaching publications.

Implications For Consultation Practice

The findings of this study clearly indicate that faculty clients who consistently use consultation services find various aspects of the faculty developer-client relationship more important than others. It is also clear that faculty clients expect the consultation process to improve their teaching. While the extent to which other outcomes are reached (become self-analytical as teachers, useful teaching resources they receive, have opportunities for follow-up, and improve student evaluation ratings), the most important thing that they expect to happen as a result of the consultation, is improvement in their teaching.

In looking at the results of these data, certain skills of the consultant and characteristics of the consultation process are also more important than others in the faculty developer-client relationship. While the extent to which all other skills explored during this survey are important, the most impor-

tant skill to faculty clients during consultation is that the consultant provide constructive feedback on their teaching. Similarly, the most important characteristic of the consultation process is that it be focused on clients' needs.

Results of the survey also convey to faculty development practitioners the need to think about providing personalized, client-specific consultations. If faculty clients perceive that the consultation process is focused on their needs as teachers, then the consultation reflects their individual needs in order to effect improved teaching. When one reads faculty development literature on the procedures and instruments used to gather data from faculty clients during an initial consultation visit or classroom observation (Lewis, 1988; Weimer, 1990), there has been a tendency to value standardization of the process. Faculty developers as professionals have too often chosen to emulate what has already been done in the field in an attempt to avoid reinventing the wheel.

All professions establish standards as a necessary and helpful way to gauge current practice, but it is also equally imperative that we avoid the temptation to standardize the consultation process. Any model of interaction between the developer and faculty client can emerge, depending on the client-developer relationship. A faculty developer should resist adopting one style or approach to consultation because this focuses on developer needs, rather than the needs and expectations of their clients (Brinko, 1991). An effective consultation process should remain "client driven" and not "faculty development driven" (Carroll & Goldberg, 1989; Cooper, 1985; Daalgard, Simpson, & Carrier, 1982; Orban, 1981; Sweeney & Grasha, 1979). The faculty client data from these two universities clearly support client specific consultation procedures.

This survey also helps consultants to think about how they might approach the faculty developer-client relationship. In striving to meet clients' needs during consultation, questions that might be helpful in meeting with clients for the first time are: (1) What do you want to accomplish with your teaching? (2) What are your expectations for this consultation process? (3) What specific objectives do you have for your work with the center? (4) If you could prioritize your consultation objectives, which would be first, second, etc.? and (5) What are some of your expectations for the type of feedback you prefer and the type of support you require from the consultant?

Faculty development consultants are key to contributing to an effective faculty developer-client relationship. They bring a variety of skills, experience, and background to the field. The results of this survey remind us that the skills we often look for in colleagues are not necessarily what faculty would regard as priorities in the faculty developer-client relationship.

This survey serves as a springboard for faculty developers, helping us to better understand our institution-specific client audience and it allows us to reflect on current consultation practice. The results of this exploratory survey tell us that it is unproductive and ineffective to standardize the faculty developer-client relationship across one center and certainly across all faculty development consultations. The expectations and outcomes for consultation practice with the faculty we serve calls for the process to be client driven, not faculty developer driven. While the results of this study are limited to similar major research universities, the essentials of the consultation process may or may not change from one type of institution to the next. This survey is an initial step toward building a body of knowledge from faculty clients who have consistently used faculty development consultation service across campuses nationally and internationally. It also helps begin anew the dialogue about how we structure and evaluate the consultation process based on client-specific dimensions.

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Appendix A

A Survey of the Faculty Developer-Client Relationship

Dear Colleague:

The faculty developer-client relationship is extremely important to you and to us. Faculty developers bring a repertoire of attributes, skills, knowledge, experience and expertise that contribute to the development of a good relationship with their clients. More importantly, as a user of our services, you have not been solicited to express your expectations or outcomes during consultation. In trying to meet your needs, we would like to know what you require, not only of our consultation services, but what outcomes are most important. Also, do we as faculty developers have the necessary skills for consulting with you? What do you consider to be the important characteristics of an effective consultation process?

In order to help us define the characteristics that contribute to the effectiveness of the developer-client relationship, we would appreciate it if you would, as a user of the services of the Office of Faculty and TA Development at Ohio State or the Center for Teaching Effectiveness at the University of Texas, take a moment to answer the questions in this short survey. Thank you for the feedback that we anticipate you will give. We will be sharing the results of the survey with our colleagues and the general public. Please be assured that the information that you provide will be confidential. We hope, as a result of the survey, to better determine your needs and to identify and recruit skilled faculty developers to our field.

We urge you to return the survey as early as you can so that low response rates do not jeopardize our effort. We would like your response by April 16, 1996. We have invested a lot of time in this survey by administering a pilot study to 25 faculty members at Ohio State and the University of Texas last Autumn. As a result, we have made modifications and have tried to keep the survey as brief and user-friendly as possible.

Again, we thank you for your valuable time. Our best wishes for a productive spring!

Sincerely,

Christine A. Stanley, Ph.D.
Instructional Development Specialist
Office of Faculty and TA Development
The Ohio State University

M. Erin Porter, Ph.D.
Coordinator of Faculty Programs
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Appendix A

A Survey of the Faculty Developer-Client Relationship

I. **Please check the service(s) used:**

- ❑ Mid-Course Student Interview
- ❑ Office Consultation
- ❑ Phone Consultation
- ❑ Other (please specify):_____
- ❑ Class Observation/Videotaping
- ❑ Evaluation Form Consultation
- ❑ Materials/Resource Request

II. **Please rank all items below in order of their importance.** ***Use each category once.***

6 = Top Priority
5 = Extremely Important
4 = Important
3 = Neutral or Undecided
2 = Somewhat Important
1 = Not At All Important

OUTCOMES

1. In assessing a consultation, the following are important to me:
   - ❑ The extent to which I become self-analytical as a teacher
   - ❑ The teaching resources I receive from the consultant
   - ❑ The opportunities for follow-up I have after the consultation
   - ❑ The extent to which the process improves my teaching
   - ❑ The extent to which the consultation process as a whole is a positive experience
   - ❑ The extent to which my student evaluation ratings improve

SKILLS

2. In assessing the skills of a consultant, the following are important to me:
   - ❑ Expertise in college teaching
   - ❑ College level classroom teaching experience
   - ❑ Proficiency with the evaluation process of teaching
   - ❑ Ability to establish a good client relationship
   - ❑ Effective communication and listening skills
   - ❑ Ability to give constructive feedback on my teaching

PROCESS

3. In assessing the consultation process, it is important to me that it be:
   - ❑ Efficient
   - ❑ Focused on my needs as a teacher
   - ❑ Confidential
   - ❑ Accessible
   - ❑ Discipline-specific
   - ❑ Voluntary

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III. Please respond to the open-ended items below:

4. Please list any other characteristics or skills that contribute to an effective faculty developer-client relationship.

5. Other comments:

IV. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (optional):

Gender: ❑ Female ❑ Male

Rank: ❑ Full Prof ❑ Assoc Prof ❑ Asst Prof
❑ Instructor/Lecturer ❑ Other (please specify):_____

Tenure Status: ❑ Tenured ❑ Tenure-Track ❑ Non-Tenure Track

Highest Degree Held: ❑ PhD ❑ MSc ❑ MA ❑ MFA ❑ BSc
❑ BA ❑ BFA ❑ Other (please specify):_____

College: ❑ Agriculture ❑ Arts & Sciences ❑ Mathematical & Physical Sciences
❑ Social & Behavioral Sciences ❑ Business ❑ Dentistry
❑ Education ❑ Engineering ❑ Human Ecology ❑ Law
❑ Medicine ❑ Nursing ❑ Optometry ❑ Pharmacy
❑ Social Work ❑ Veterinary Medicine
(Names of Colleges adjusted to be campus specific)

Thank you for taking the time to respond to this survey. This survey should be returned via CAMPUS mail to the appropriate individual listed below by ***April 16, 1996.***

The Ohio State University

Christine Stanley
Faculty and TA Development
20 Lord Hall, 124 West 17th Avenue, CAMPUS.

University of Texas
at Austin

Erin Porter
Center for Teaching Effectiveness
Main Building 2200, G2100, CAMPUS.

By Carl H. Boening and Michael T. Miller

Who Gets a Sabbatical?: A Ten Year Study of Sabbatical Application Patterns at the University of Alabama, 1986-1996

Sabbatical leave programs serve as an important component in a holistic faculty development program. The sabbatical leave provides for benefits to the institution, the faculty member, and importantly, students. The current study examined the application and approval patterns of sabbatical leave requests at the University of Alabama during a ten year period, and demonstrates an institutional emphasis on and interest by faculty in the humanities and business administration. These faculty primarily utilized the sabbatical program as a mechanism for enhancing research production. Conversely, faculty in the social sciences were shown to seldom make use of the sabbatical leave. Higher education institutions are labor-intensive, reliant on faculty to provide the "product" of the institution. Faculty teach, provide service to university, state and local communities, and conduct basic and applied research (Fairweather, 1993). In each of these efforts, the need for professional development activities is paramount to maintaining a vibrant and effective higher education enterprise. This need has become particularly articulated as faculty as a group have begun to feel pressured from diverse institutional sources such as cultural expectations for services, as well as external sources such as accrediting bodies and state legislatures (Hunt, 1993).

CLARK AND CORCORAN (1989) identified faculty development as a crucial factor in maintaining institutional vitality. Despite Weingartner's (1989) contention that faculty are individually responsible for their own development activities, institutional responses have proven to be an effective means of providing the support and energy which motivate and involve faculty in developmental and renewal activities (Wheeler, 1993). Additionally, institutional intervention programs at various faculty career stages have proven beneficial for re-tooling and improving faculty performance (Kalivoda, Sorrell, & Simpson, 1994).

One of the oldest and recently most controversial forms of faculty development programs is the sabbatical leave (Carl, 1994). The sabbatical leave program, as a component in a holistic approach to faculty development, allows individual faculty members to remove themselves from their typical assignments to engage in varied learning and motivational experiences. Often inclusive of

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research and writing opportunities, the sabbatical has consistently been reported as one of the most successful programs available for renewing faculty vitality for both teaching and research (Avakian, 1987; Lively, 1994; Sima & Denton, 1995).

As the sabbatical has been demonstrated to be effective in faculty renewal, the current study was designed to explore the characteristics and trends in the use of sabbatical faculty development programs at the University of Alabama between 1986 and 1996. Four specific research questions were developed for investigation: (1) What are the sabbatical approval patterns during the ten year period by academic discipline? (2) What is the typical requested length of a proposed sabbatical? (3) What are the thematic categories of approved sabbatical requests? And (4), is there a correlation between previous sabbatical leave(s) granted and re-application approval?

Background of the Study

Professional development is an essential component of a faculty member's career, and the sabbatical is one important method of any faculty development program. Professors are, by the nature of their profession, committed to life-long learning, and faculty development programs enhance learning skills, allow for research and exploration, and provide avenues for faculty to become better teachers (Geis & Smith, 1989).

Schwartz (1983) indicated that faculty should be responsible for their own development, attending workshops, conferences, and seminars to enhance their own teaching and learning skills as well as for keeping abreast of new information in their respective fields. He further held that faculty may hope for institutional assistance and incentives, but must take primary responsibility for themselves. Clark and Corcoran (1989), however, believed that faculty development was not a luxury, but rather, a necessity. They claimed that faculty career vitality was inseparably linked with institutional vitality, and that faculty development programs should be instituted and reflect the institution's mission statement.

Sabbatical programs, as a form of compensated leave of absence, is typically an option for faculty after six years of service to an institution (Good, 1959). Faculty tend to receive full-pay for one-semester or half-pay for a full academic year. The origins of the word "sabbatical" contain mythological and religious elements. In the first century AD, Pinny the Elder wrote of the legend of the river Sabbation, which flowed for six days and rested on the seventh (Zahorski, 1994). The Book of Leviticus tells of God's order to the Israelites to observe a "sabbath on the Lord" by resting their crop fields every seventh year (p. 5). The term sabbatical, then, has come to indicate a rest or break from a routine, one which provides both physical and spiritual renewal and regeneration.

As a component of faculty development, sabbatical leaves provide many of the same benefits of other programs. Taking a sabbatical can help to prevent job burnout, increase professional satisfaction, promote growth and rejuvenation, and allow needed time for teaching, research, and service (Cook, 1994). Personal experiences with sabbatical leaves have almost unanimously been positive. While on sabbatical, faculty derive many benefits, such as providing a break in a daily or semester routine, taking personal charge of professional interests and projects, allowing uninterrupted time for work on major projects, and broadening personal and professional horizons (Reynolds, 1990). The sabbatical also provides benefits to the institution as well as the faculty member, often improving morale, increasing scholarly output, improving teaching practices and attitudes toward students, and advancing institutional vitality (Avakian, 1987).

Background of the Institution

The University of Alabama is a four-year, Carnegie classified Doctoral Granting institution which enrolls approximately 19,000 undergraduate and graduate students. During the years 1986-1996, the University employed an average of 490 full and associate professors per year (see Table.1). During that same time period, an average of 41 professors applied for a sabbatical leave per year (see Table 2). As assistant professors and instructors are typically ineligible for sabbatical leaves, they were operationally eliminated from the study.

During the period of study, the University was organized into 12 academic units on the Tuscaloosa campus, and progressed dramatically in terms of their total average credit hour production. The colleges, with their total (undergraduate and graduate) average credit hour production included: Arts and Sciences (251,830), Commerce and Business Administration (87,807), Communications (23,220), Community Health Sciences (2,199), Education (55,316), Engineering (41,029), Human Environmental Sciences (18,801), Nursing (7,317), New College (4,532), Law (16,359), Library and Information Studies (3,273), and Social Work (7,627).

Research Methods

The current study was designed to make use of the case study research method, inclusive of archive retrieval as the primary means of data collection. The case study method allows for the examination of the decision-making process and the results of the process, intending to describe a particular episode (Yin, 1984). As an ex post facto study, no determination of cause or effect was intended (Mickler, Chissom, & McLean, 1989).

Data were collected from the Graduate School, Division of Academic Affairs, at the University of Alabama. As the Division of Academic Affairs was responsible for all sabbatical applications, this office proved the most reliable for obtaining comprehensive listings of sabbatical applications during the period of study. All data were collected during the summer of 1996.

Data analysis included primarily descriptive statistics intended to portray trends, and additional research questions were answered using the content analysis method. Content analysis provides an objective, quantitative, and systematic description of data. The analyses were triangulated between researchers and the Graduate School to validate findings.

Findings

A total of 408 sabbatical applications were included in the data analysis, of which, 333 were approved. These applications were

TABLE 1: Full and Associate Professors Employed at the University of Alabama, 1986-1996

Year	Professor	Associate	Total
1986-1987	269	194	463
1987-1988	307	209	516
1988-1989	285	219	504
1989-1990	288	215	503
1990-1991	286	208	494
1991-1992	288	213	501
1992-1993	283	201	484
1993-1994	267	206	473
1994-1995	255	220	475
Mean = 490.33			

TABLE 2: Applications for Sabbatical Leave, 1986-1996

Year	Applications
1986-1987	33
1987-1988	41
1988-1989	47
1989-1990	38
1990-1991	41
1991-1992	54
1992-1993	32
1993-1994	41
1994-1995	45
1995-1996	36
N = 408 Mean = 40.8	

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stratified by academic discipline and are presented in Table 3.

Approval Pattern by Discipline

The College of Arts and Sciences (A&S), the largest college at the University, had the most sabbatical requests between 1986 and 1996, totaling 258. The College of Nursing and the School for Library and Information Sciences, conversely, had the fewest number of requests during the same period of time with two each. For the colleges with at least 14 requests during the ten year period of study, the College of Commerce and Business Administration (CCBA) had the highest approval rate with 86% of all applications being approved, and the College of Education had the lowest approval rate with 29%.

Length of Request

As identified in Table 4, the majority of all sabbatical applications requested institutional leave for one academic semester (n=331; 81%). These semester leave applications were specific toward either the fall semester (n=172) or spring semester (n=142), and 17 were non-specified. Of these requests, 138 of the fall applications were approved, 118 of the spring applications were approved, and 11 of the non-specified applications were approved.

During the period of study, 63 applications were reviewed which requested an entire academic year of leave (50 were approved), and 7 requested a calendar year of leave (6 approved).

A general "other" category was developed in reviewing the applications and contained 7 cases. These 7 requests, 5 of which were approved, contained unique requests which did not fit into the previous categories, such as "full year or fall semester," "April through August," and "fall semester and following summer."

Application Themes

Sabbatical applications were first clustered into the traditional responsibilities of teaching, research, and service. For approved applications, 312 (94%) were classified as pertaining to research, 11 were classified as teaching, and 10 related to service and other activities (see Table 5).

Research sabbatical requests were inclusive of both basic and applied research, and included such activities as "write a book on ancient Olmec culture," and "start and finish a book on Russian history." Teaching applications primarily focused on visiting scholar duties and participation in seminars or insti-

TABLE 3: Cumulative Sabbatical Leave Requests and Approval Rates by Discipline

Academic Discipline	Requests	Approved	% Approved	% of Total
Art and Sciences	258	220	85	54
Commerce and Business	58	50	86	12
Communications	18	12	67	3
Community and Health Sciences	5	4	80	1
Education	14	4	29	1
Engineering	11	10	91	2
Home Economics Studies (?)	3	3	100	1
Nursing	2	2	100	1
New College	6	3	50	1
Law	19	12	63	3
Library Information Sciences	2	2	100	1
Social Work	12	11	92	3
TOTAL	408	333	81	

tutes. Purpose statements from this category included "to work as a visiting scholar at Stanford University," and to "conduct training workshops on pain management."

The service and other categories related to administrative work either in or outside of higher education and professional development through enrollment in courses. Service related purpose statements included "work on a Continuous Quality Improvement team with Boeing," and "to work as an administrative advisor to the administration of the Tuscaloosa Police Department." Purpose statements in the "other" category included "to improve and maintain clinical skills by attending one or two classes at another major university on internal medicine," and "upgrade knowledge of technological advances to improve and implement electronic service for UA libraries."

Using a naturalistic inquiry method, application purpose statements were reviewed by content to identify clusters or themes. In doing so, five themes arose: scholarship and research, artistic exploration and development, technical fieldwork/teaching, professional service, and professional renewal (see Table 6). The Scholarship and Research statements comprised 77% of the approved applications, followed by the Technical Fieldwork/Teaching statements (15%).

Correlation with Prior Sabbatical Approval

Individuals who had previously been approved for a sabbatical were identified with the help of the University of Alabama Graduate School. These data were then used to conduct a Pearson Product Moment Correlation with sabbatical request approvals during the period of study, and the analysis indicated a positive, moderately strong (r=.820) relationship between previous sabbatical approval and reapplication approval.

Discussion

The high overall approval rate for sabbatical applications (81%) is most likely due to a number of factors alluded to in application materials: planning issues, timeline,

TABLE 4: Requested Lengths of Sabbatical Leaves

Requested Length	N	(%)	Approved N	(%)	Not Approved N	(%)
Semester	331	81	267	81	64	19
Fall Only	172	52	138	52	34	53
Spring Only	142	43	118	44	24	38
Fall or Spring	17	5	11	4	6	9
Year	70	17	56	80	14	20
Fall-Spring	63	90	50	89	13	93
Spring-Fall*	7	10	6	11	1	7
Other	7	2	5	71	2	29

*Spring and Fall Semester of same calendar year.

TABLE 5: Approved Sabbatical Purpose Statements Stratified by Teaching, Research, Service, and Other

Year	Teaching	Research	Service	Other	Total
1987-1987	3	24	1	2	30
1987-1988	0	24	0	1	25
1988-1989	3	27	0	0	30
1989-1990	4	27	0	0	31
1990-1991	0	32	0	0	32
1991-1992	0	40	1	1	42
1992-1993	1	29	1	0	31
1993-1994	0	36	2	0	38
1994-1995	0	39	0	1	40
1995-1996	0	34	0	0	34
TOTAL	11	312	5	5	333

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perceived worthiness, and perhaps, the traditional nature of particular academic disciplines to apply for and receive a sabbatical leave. Regardless of causality, the overwhelming number and success of the liberal arts faculty in developing sabbatical proposals was evident. These faculty, therefore, may prove to be valuable resources for other faculty in obtaining and understanding the sabbatical leave value and process.

Although one-semester sabbaticals were the most popular in length (331 of 408, 81%), year-long sabbaticals were approved at approximately the same rate (80%). This could indicate that faculty may not be as able or willing to take an entire year sabbatical due to financial considerations, but it may also be due to a faculty perception that year-long sabbatical requests are excessive and may hurt their chances of approval. Faculty may also wish to consider taking more spring semester sabbaticals, thus extending the leave opportunity throughout the summer months.

The thematic categories of requests demonstrate that faculty are taking sabbatical leave to do research and complete scholarship activities, regardless of the field of study. Considering the increasingly 'publish or perish' mentality on many campuses, this is neither surprising nor inspiring. Faculty seem to be using their sabbatical leave time not to improve teaching skills or perform service-related activities, but to catch-up or get ahead on research projects. The high positive correlation between previous sabbatical leave(s) granted and re-application approval may be due to previous sabbatical requests. If faculty have taken a sabbatical in the past and were successful in completing their objectives, the perception may be to reward this work behavior with another approval. Conversely, research should be undertaken to identify if the converse of this is true, i.e., whether faculty who submit requests and are not approved will continue to have their proposals not approved.

TABLE 6: Approved Related Purpose Statements by Thematic Categories

Theme	Related Statements
Scholarship and Research	write books/textbooks write articles prepare manuscripts conduct experiments conduct surveys compose art do research abroad/locally complete research study behavior
Artistic Exploration and Development	study music methods expand musical repertoire photograph architecture write a play produce sculptural work work on new compositions work in a studio
Technicall Fieldwork/Teaching	study on site complete on-site study conduct workshops participate in seminars visit facilities teach/work abroad interview experts/officials
Professional Service	work as an advisor participate in outside agency assist in-house development
Professional Renewal	improve clinical skills study with experts upgrade knowledge

The findings of this exploratory case study demonstrate that faculty do desire to participate in this form of faculty development program, and that liberal arts faculty in particular find the sabbatical leave program beneficial. Institutional specific research may continue to demonstrate this, so cross-sectional research involving a variety of institutional types and faculty disciplines will yield important and practical results for those in faculty development.

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By Nancy Scovil

The Challenge of Videoconferencing: More Than Teacher Training

The intent of this article is to report findings obtained during initial investigation of the effectiveness of videoconferencing in fostering student learning from a faculty view-point, to identify issues arising from its use, and to raise pertinent questions for further inquiry.

In 1994, St. Lawrence College spent $700,000 on a videoconferencing system to link its three campuses. This was a risky venture for a small Ontario college in a deficit budget position. The intention was to provide increased access to courses in a cost- effective manner by broadcasting curriculum across the three campuses. An instructor would teach a live class on one site which would be broadcast simultaneously to the other two sites. Additionally, the college hoped to reduce travel costs incurred by management responsible for tri-campus operations spanning a distance of 225 miles. Two years later the college runs eight courses using this videoconferencing system. To date, however, no formal follow-up has been conducted to assess how the system is working and what might be done to improve its effectiveness. The intent of this article is to report findings obtained during initial investigation of the effectiveness of videoconferencing in fostering student learning from a faculty viewpoint, to identify issues arising from its use, and to raise pertinent questions for further enquiry.

Technological advancements in recent years have greatly enhanced the potential for distance education, specifically the arrival of completely interactive audio/video educational environments.

> By the end of this century most educational services will be delivered electronically by teleconferencing, cable and satellite television, computer networks and other means yet to be discovered. (Knowles, 1986, cited in Hope, 1992, p. 71)

While Knowles' prediction may not be realized, the use of videoconferencing as a means of delivering distance education is certainly increasing. Interactive distance education has been defined as the sharing of instruction among two or more sites using telecommunications technology while providing interaction among the participants (Hale, 1988, cited in Bland, 1992). As Laurillard points out, "teleconferencing is essentially a solution to a logistical problem, rather than a pedagogical problem, normally used to overcome the problem of communicating with students who are geographically distributed" (1993, p. 164). While videoconferencing clearly addresses the issue of learner access, it also generates issues of its own. Many users have written about the difficulties associated with videoconferencing, ranging from time lapses in video transmission to the challenge of fostering collaborative learning through student interaction at remote sites (e.g. see, Burge, 1988; Tykwinski and Poulin, 1991). Although these are important concerns, I wonder if the fundamental question of how to assess the effectiveness of videoconferencing has really been addressed—compared to

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what? What are the standards? How do you define effectiveness in this context?

Since I am concerned with the application of videoconferencing for adult learners, I wonder what the implications are for a learner-centred approach. Burge, who defines a learner-centred view as one in which the learner's issues are considered before those of the teacher or course content (1988, p. 14), queries how such a learner-centred view might be reconciled with the "highly directive, transmittal models of distance education" (1988, p. 13). She asks, "five years from now, which criteria will we use to measure improvements in distance learning? Greater learner autonomy and choice? Greater educator control and predictability? Faster interactions? Will the criteria enable integrative, holistic assessments, or narrow views on fragmented aspects of the learning experience?" (1988, p. 6). Clearly there are fundamental issues at stake in the world of high tech education.

Method

In this article, I examine from a teacher's perspective the role of videoconferencing in effectively fostering student learning. While this perspective is a restricted one, the findings may be extended to further investigation involving other stakeholders, specifically students and college administrators. Learner-centredness offers one vantage point from which to explore effectiveness; I am also interested in what practitioners have to say about other critical issues emerging from their field experience.

To pursue this enquiry, I conducted personal interviews with three faculty members at St. Lawrence College who are currently teaching post-secondary courses using the videoconferencing system. All have taught these courses previously in the traditional face-to-face manner; all are experienced teachers of adults. Two of these teachers have used videoconferencing more than once to deliver curriculum; one reports her first-time experience with this form of distance education.

The Technology

St. Lawrence College uses a videoconferencing system called VTel. It provides a completely interactive video and audio educational environment, utilizing a process known as high end compressed video. The VTel product allows multimedia conferencing, incorporating graphics display capabilities, instantaneous transference of documents from one site to another, and computer interaction as well as real time audio/visual. The college selected the VTel system based on these capabilities, ease of use, and the fact that the manufacturer was the largest academically established company at the time of purchase. Identical classrooms on each campus are equipped with conference telephones and fax machines. When technology has failed and a classroom site has disappeared from view at the other sites, the conference phones have allowed those students to participate with audio only. Fax machines have enabled students and teachers to instantaneously exchange documents, an invaluable feature when tri-campus delivery of materials has been tardy.

Procedure

In selecting courses for enquiry, I deliberately chose curricula from different disciplines: Human Biology, Canadian American Relations, and Teaching Adults, to introduce variations in content. My intent was to see if teachers perceived content as having an influence on the effectiveness of VTel as a delivery tool.

The questions that I developed to steer the subsequent interviews were derived from numerous readings on the topic (Hope, 1992; Bland, Morrison and Ross, 1992; Jackman, 1994; McHenry and Bozik, 1995) as well as interviews with the educational technology staff at St. Lawrence College who clarified some of the technical issues related to videoconferencing. Questions were open-ended in order to pursue those areas considered important by the teachers (see Appendix A).

Discussions were initiated by establishing variations in course content and delivery methods which might contribute to some of the issues arising from the use of VTel:

- specifics of course content
- course level (introductory or advanced)
- teacher's perception of impact of VTel on attrition and achievement

- teacher location during course delivery
- teacher use of technological features of the system
- use of on-site facilitators

Topics used to guide further discussion towards identification of issues relating to the use of videoconferencing included:

- successes in using the system
- difficulties encountered using the system
- strategies for dealing with difficulties
- strategies for promoting student interaction
- support for students outside of class time
- issues identified for future use of VTel
- how videoconferencing fits into notions of learner-centredness

Results

Prior to isolating specific issues, I have summarized each interview in order to capture the flavour of each teacher's unique perspective and experience with videoconferencing.

Human Biology

This is a first year course offered to General Arts and Science students who wish to gain admission to the Health Sciences disciplines but lack the pre-requisites for entry.

It is content-driven, providing an overview of all of the systems of the human body. The teacher specifically chose this course as one suitable for delivery via VTel since she felt it was essentially visual and didactic. Her comments are incorporated in the following summary of our interview.

She identified the teacher's "interest and enthusiasm" as the most important factor in videoconferenced course delivery. "It's even more important on VTel since there's no physical presence on the remote sites. It's like watching TV at home at night... the interaction becomes really important." To promote enthusiasm, her strategy was to deliver a class from each of the remote sites very early on in the course and to quickly learn the names of the students. In the first week she did not focus on curriculum content but rather on an immediate introduction to the technology so that students gained experience and confidence in working the microphones and dealing with the time lag between speaking and voice transmission to the other sites. She interviewed each student on the first day with the assistance of a technician at each site who ensured that the camera captured each student.

This highlighted one of the technical problems: although the cameras automatically pan to the site of the speaker, there is a time lag in this action and so participants need to be aware that the camera moves slowly. A technical problem also arose when the teacher showed a graphic on screen. Once the teacher stopped talking, the camera started to pan the students and the remote site students lost the graphic. This meant that the teacher had to talk while graphics were on the monitor. This was less than ideal since the students needed to be able to read and digest the material prior to discussion. A third technical problem related to the fact that the teacher routinely saw only one of the other two remote sites on screen. The camera would only pan to the third site if a student at that site spoke. The teacher felt quite disconnected from the students at the third site. Finally the teacher was concerned about the trend to computer generated graphic displays. "They're too corporate and sterile and don't create interest."

Student interaction was problematic. "There's a tendency to be a talking head on VTel." Since this course is content centred, providing a core knowledge base for students pursuing the health sciences, she focused on individual comprehension of the material. Her delivery now includes more free time for students to do work on their own at their respective sites and to ask questions.

A further concern was the distribution of print support materials to each site. To address this problem, a study guide was selected specifically for this delivery method so that students had clear support materials in case they were unable to grasp the important elements of the curriculum. The teacher provided a weekly on-camera consultation hour beyond the scheduled class time. She found it was " a bit scary for students to phone a teacher they don't really know" so she successfully tried this as an alternative.

While she experienced higher attrition on the remote sites, there has been no significant difference in grades. "Some people quit after the first class; they don't want to do a

course on VTel." Now that the course is in its second offering, word of mouth among students is more positive. "It is possible to survive a course on VTel, however, testing is still a nightmare." Clerical staff must be enlisted to proctor tests on the remote sites in between their other duties. Ideally there should be teacher's assistants on each site but cost has prohibited this.

This teacher sees videoconferencing as a delivery method that is best used to enhance self-directed learning:

> Students would work on individualized packages; they would all be at different places, and we'd meet once a week to discuss what they don't understand. I'd conduct the course the way I conduct the tutorials. They would have video tapes at each of the remote sites which they could view in their own time. There would be certain topics that I would lecture followed by discussion. This would require students who are motivated and self-directed, not those who are just here for the ride.

When asked if VTel should be used only for senior level courses where students tend to be more motivated and focused, this teacher felt that this would engage the system at a higher level of functioning. "It's not creative at level-one courses. We would be using its strengths if we reserved it for senior courses."

Teaching Adults

Teaching Adults is a course that tends to attract highly motivated learners since it is the first in a part-time credential program delivered to continuing education students who are pursuing a Teacher of Adults Certificate. Students must be currently involved in the teaching or training of adults as either volunteers or paid staff.

The instructor, one of the original designers of this program, sees this course as a "journey of discovery." It is the foundation experience in building trust and collegiality among a diverse group of learners who will form a cohort in the completion of this program. Content is value-oriented, challenging personal assumptions and beliefs about teaching and learning; it demands critical reflection and encourages authentic sharing of personal experiences and opinions.

Because the course is process-based, this teacher had grave reservations about the suitability of VTel as a delivery method; however, economics prevailed. There simply were not enough students at any one site to make it cost-effective. Having an adventurous spirit, she decided to give VTel a go.

Logistical problems were abundant. Because the course was offered in the evening after regular working hours, clerical and technical staff were unavailable. There was no budget for overtime; the teacher had to fend for herself in the case of emergencies. The most persistent problem was that of delivery of printed materials to each site. Elaborate advanced planning was required limiting the ability to respond to serendipitous last minute enrichment materials. An orderly, unwavering delivery schedule seemed necessary if students were to have appropriate support materials in time. Then there was the night that a farmer was ploughing his field and cut the cable!

This instructor also reported that camera control was problematic i.e., if a student spoke when a graphic was being shown on screen, the camera left the graphic and panned to the speaker site. Some accommodation is required to allow more control over the duration of the camera focus on graphic displays.

In a course devoted to team building, the inability to move among the on-site students was frustrating. By donning a head-set the teacher was able to escape the lectern but could not move beyond the first row and remain in camera range. Since only one person could be heard at a time and there was a time lag while the camera switched focus to the speaker, naturally flowing conversation and quick retorts were not possible. Sequential conversation was required. A time lag also exaggerated body movement, so gesturing needed to be modified. While group discussion was attempted, students were reluctant to "broadcast" personal experiences and reflections.

Ultimately, the teacher chose to build more face-to-face contact into the process. To do this she delivered classes from each site on a rotation basis requiring many late nights and much travelling. She enlisted senior students in the program and rotated them to

each site as well so that at every class there was a teacher or teaching assistant present in the room. The teaching assistants were not paid but were able to use the experience to fulfil their placement requirements. While this greatly improved the capability of on-site group interaction, it did not resolve the problem of inter-site discussion.

Despite these difficulties, students persisted in the course; only one dropped out. At the end of the semester, the teacher organized a Christmas party at the mid-point campus for all of the students. All but two (of 50) attended, meeting each other for the first time. Many returned the next semester to continue in the program in courses delivered face-to-face only.

A serious issue in the opinion of this teacher was the consideration of a learner-centred application of this modality. In her opinion, this particular course was not suitable for delivery by videoconferencing and by imposing this method of delivery, the needs of the students were not adequately met.

Canadian American Relations

This is a general education course offered to General Arts and Science students as part of the fulfilment of a post-secondary diploma. Since all post-secondary students attending college in Ontario are required to complete general education credits, students from other programs may take the course as an elective. Consequently, it is delivered to students at varying stages of program completion.

The teacher noted that the presentation demands made on instructors who use videoconferencing are considerable. "I'm always aware of the remote sites and trying to get interaction at the remote locations." He uses copious visual graphics to spice up his presentations to break the monotony of seeing only his face on screen. The demanding aspect is assembling appropriate visuals. He finds that, because VTel allows direct use of coloured print material, it is in fact easier to use than the traditional transparent overhead method. He is assisted by the subject matter in his course which invites the use of pictures rather than words: photos of political figures, editorial cartoons, and magazine spreads.

Although this teacher is extremely comfortable using the technology, it has been a challenge to give the off-site students a picture of the on-site students at will. While the camera will move to the site with the most noise, it does not zoom to the individual speaker. With a three site hook-up the professor has no control over the off-site cameras; with a two campus hook-up, however, the system does allow the teacher to zoom in on specific students. He feels that a zoom feature is important to allow students to get to know each other. The teacher should also have the capacity to switch to each off-site location at will; currently this is not possible. The cameras respond only to the site with the most noise. In one delivery of this course involving only two sites, the teacher was able to perform these camera manipulations and concluded that this was a crucial component in effective use of the system.

In a course devoted to politics, discussion is paramount. The professor fosters interaction by being demanding. If students don't volunteer their opinions or views, he asks for individual responses. He begins the course with introductions, giving the students the opportunity to use the microphones. The intent is to promote an interest in the technology while at the same time developing a comfort with it so it does not become distracting.

This teacher does not find attrition to be higher when the course is delivered via VTel. Neither does he see a difference in grades across the campuses. His experience has been that students stay because they enjoy the technology which has allowed him to make the course more interesting through the incorporation of videotapes and varied graphics. This semester he hopes to have a tri-campus debate among local politicians .

To support the students, he has created complete notes for each class which are distributed at the beginning of the course. To facilitate distribution of print materials, he has assigned a student class monitor who picks up materials from the departmental secretary, collects student assignments, and distributes marked tests. While he recognizes that this raises a confidentiality issue, the students have not yet expressed any concern in this regard. Monitors are not paid but will receive a token gift at the end of the course. As in the case of the other courses in

this study, on-site students write their tests in class with the teacher present. This particular teacher also proctors the students at one of the remote sites by using the system's zoom feature. Students at the third site are proctored by a clerical staff person.

Although he has never visited the other sites, this professor senses a real camaraderie among all of the students. This was a unique comment; other teachers did not feel that inter-site communication had been established. This teacher, however, observes that the topic of politics seems to naturally engender debate. Since there are no right or wrong answers, students do not feel intimidated by expressing their views. Despite the fact that the teacher has not travelled to the remote sites, he reports that students do contact him by telephone to discuss any questions. He cites his detailed course notes as a useful aid in supplementing classes and clarifying content.

Finally, this instructor finds the process more rewarding and challenging than face-to-face teaching. He enjoys the pursuit of interesting visuals to create a constantly changing, stimulating atmosphere. "It's like taking the concept of advertising to its fullest where the attention span is very short and the challenge is to create a visually stimulating and interesting environment."

Discussion And Implications

This discussion focuses on the value of various interventions in enhancing the effectiveness of videoconferencing. In the interests of clarity, discussion is separated into two broad areas: technological issues related to the VTel system itself, and adult learning issues, including implications for students, faculty, and administrators.

Technological Issues

Although the VTel system represents state-of-the-art technology, there are technical difficulties that all teachers found detrimental to a positive learning experience.

All agreed that improved interactivity, particularly inter-site discussion, was important yet limitations in controlling camera movement restricted technological support of communication among the three sites. Improvement in the teacher's capability of switching camera focus to each off-site location at will and manipulating the zoom feature were identified by one teacher as being crucial.

Commentators on videoconferencing have noted problems associated with the time lag between speaking and voice transmission to remote sites as well as the time lag between speech and adjusting camera focus on the speaker (Carter, 1995; McHenry and Bozik, 1995). The teachers interviewed in this study have made similar observations. The effect is that speech must be sequential with time allotted for the camera to catch up. The fact that a participant must wait until a speaker has finished talking before responding has its positive aspects. It certainly forces the courtesy of not interrupting. On the other hand, the natural flow of normal conversation and quick retort is curtailed and in one teacher's view, this made communicators self-conscious and intensified the awareness that every word was broadcasted.

Technology actually helped teachers get to know their students. Tykwinski and Poulin (1991) recommend the use of initial round-robin introductions during the first class to enable students to become familiar with using the technology. All teachers utilized this technique and videotaped the class so they could quickly learn to identify each student.

The graphic display feature was seen to be easier to utilize than traditional transparent over-heads and afforded opportunities to use materials that would be otherwise unsuitable, such as direct demonstration of magazine illustrations. Not all were enamoured of the restrictions of the graphic display; 40 point type size is minimal for print, making hand written graphics unsuitable. In one teacher's view, this tended to force computer graphics which set a corporate and somewhat dehumanized tone to overlays.

The technological and logistical issues raised are echoed by many commentators on videoconferencing: the need for further technological improvements to promote smoother interaction among participants, the need for on-site facilitators, the persistent problems of making resources available on all sites in a timely manner. A more complex issue is the fit of videoconferencing into notions of adult learning.

Adult Learning Issues

My purpose was to investigate the effectiveness of videoconferencing in fostering student learning by identifying challenges both created and solved by its use. Basic to this enquiry is a definition of effectiveness. As Burge observed (1988), there are many vantage points from which to tackle this concept in distance education. I began by tying effectiveness to the extent to which learner needs were being met. This led to the next question: what are learner needs in videoconferencing? While the scope of this investigation was restricted to a faculty perspective, this is a question that should also be directed at students. Clearly access is the need that drives distance education but what further needs arise from this modality? With as few as three teachers' commentaries to draw on, additional needs demanding consideration began to emerge. Among them are course suitability and student suitability.

"While virtually any program CAN be adapted for delivery at a distance, some will be more easily adapted than others" (Wagner, 1995, p. 19). Was the Teaching Adults course an appropriate one to deliver by VTel? While these were limited, self-reporting discussions with many extraneous variables, I agree that the focus on personal critical reflection in the Teaching Adults course may have clashed with the "on stage" nature of videoconferencing. All courses may not be appropriate for this medium.

A second quandary is student suitability. Should this medium be reserved for advanced level students who have established their motivation and some responsibility for their own learning or should we in fact be deliberately exposing first-year students to this mode so they can learn how to learn with 21st century technology? I suspect there are no hard and fast rules here. Rather than base the selection of videoconferencing on level of program completion, I think we need to take student suitability into account as one of many factors affecting this decision. The notion of student suitability does, however, suggest a new area of skill development.

Apart from training the teachers, what responsibilities do we have to train students in high tech learning? Instruction may need to extend far beyond using the microphone and speaking sequentially. In considering this, we will need to find a balance between bringing learners into line with technology and recognizing the limitations of technology as a vehicle for enhancing learning. This consideration introduces a third area of human development: administrator training. Those who make the decisions to utilize videoconferencing need to consider not only cost effectiveness but also andragogical issues. Are there occasions when videoconferencing does not serve the best interests of learners or the institution? Expanded field data on the impact of videoconferencing on all stakeholders would assist managers in making prudent decisions on the optimal deployment of this tool.

All of these considerations fall within an economic context in Ontario of dramatically reduced public funding and consequent downsizing. Administrators are challenged to do more with less. Gibson and Gibson stress the need to provide an adequate support structure when using a videoconferencing system: "you are doomed to failure if you only get the dollars to build the technology" (1995, p. 15). A further aspect of administrator development, then, is the task of finding creative, efficient solutions to the need for support resources and follow-up assessment.

High tech education is a reality; the responsibility for its success is broad-based. We need to engage all stakeholders in the process of assessing and managing this new tool so that it may find its appropriate place in the enhancement of learning.

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Appendix A

Interview Questions

1. What is the nature and content of the course you deliver on VTel?

2. Have you taught this course previously on VTel? If yes, how many times?

3. Have you taught this course previously using another delivery method? If yes,

what method(s) have you used e.g. face-to-face, independent study.

4. At what level of program completion are the students in your course?

5. Where are you located during course delivery? Do you change sites? Describe.

6. Do you use an on-site facilitator? If no, do you think this is an important component?
If yes, what is the facilitator's role? What personnel do you use?

7. What features of the VTel system do you use?
Prompts: graphic display, camera controls, zoom feature, fax machine, phone.

8. Describe any training you received prior to using VTel.

9. Do you think that the use of VTel has affected attrition in your course? If yes, how? Compare on-site and off-site attrition. If no, how do you account for this?

10. Do you think that the use of VTel has affected student performance in your course?
Compare on-site, off-site performance as well as performance in face-to-face delivery, if possible.

11. How do you address interaction using VTel? Prompts: teacher/student, student/student, intra-site, inter-site.

12. What are the advantages of using VTel? Prompts: technological, logistical, andragogical.

13. What effective strategies have you developed for using VTel?

14. What difficulties have you encountered in using VTel?
Prompts: technological, logistical, andragogical.

15. How have you dealt with the difficulties you have encountered?

16. Some teachers think that the following factors should be considered in assessing the suitability of using VTel. Other teachers do not think these factors are important. What do you think?

Factors: course content
student level in program completion.

Are there other factors that you think might affect the suitability of using VTel for course delivery? Expand.

17. How do you see VTel fitting into the notion of learner-centredness? Is this important to you? Prompt: learner-centredness incorporates the notion that learners' issues are considered before those of the teacher or institution (Burge, 1988).

18. What issues do you think are most important to consider in future use of the VTel system?

19. Do you have any other comments you would like to make?

Thank you.

By Edwin G. Ralph

Improving Both GTA[1] and Instructional Developer Effectiveness

This study examined the fifth-year of an ongoing instructional-development program designed by a Canadian university for beginning instructors at the undergraduate level. Findings showed that both the GTAs and the instructional development leaders demonstrated professional growth in their respective domains: the former in generic, instructional skills, the latter in their overall leadership and supervisory philosophies and decisions. Contributing factors for these to two levels of development are addressed.

INTEREST IN the improvement of teaching in higher education has increased notably on a universal scale during the past few years. There has been a corresponding rise in the number of various professional and academic associations, publications, and conferences addressing this subject of instructional development at the post-secondary level.[2]

A related field that has been attracting the attention of stakeholders in higher education is that of graduate teaching-assistant development, because of its strategic position in potentially being able to influence all future post-secondary teaching. Although considerable recent research has been conducted on GTA development efforts, less has been done on enhancing the ongoing effectiveness of the instructional developers and mentors who lead and implement these programs.

The purpose of this study was to illustrate how one GTA development initiative recently conducted in a Western Canadian university fulfilled the dual role of promoting the professional development both of the GTAs and the leaders who participated in the program.

Rationale

If one defines "professional development" as the process by which educators (e.g., teachers and administrators) expand and improve their repertoire of professional knowledge and skills for the ultimate purpose of enhancing student learning (Fullan, 1991), then a follow-up question might be: "How could the effectiveness of such activities be ascertained?"

It is reasonable to assume that the degree of success experienced by a GTA development program (however this success would be determined) would be congruent with the

[1]In this article "GTA" represents any of a variety of teaching/instructional roles filled by non-tenured personnel (e.g., graduate teaching assistants, sessional lecturers, seminar and tutorial leaders, laboratory demonstrators, part-time instructors, or small-group leaders).

[2]Examples are: (for organizations), The Society for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education (STLHE), in Canada; (for publication), *The Journal of Graduate Teaching Assistant Development*, of Stillwater, OK; and (for conferences), The series of bi-annual Conferences on the Education and Employment of Graduate Teaching Assistants, e.g., Minneapolis, 1997.

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degree of effectiveness of the performance of the personnel conducting the particular program. However, even though the instructional developers are held ultimately accountable for the effect of the professional programs they manage, there are several other factors that may influence the results.

Researchers studying change in educational organizations have found that—in addition to implementing sound planning, preparation, and presentation—effective change-agents must also be able to recognize and harness the energy that emerges from the unique combination of variables arising from the interaction of the leaders and the participants in a contextually-specific situation (Fullan, 1991, 1994; Fullan & Miles, 1992).

For instance, in one study on instructional improvement Ralph (in press) found that instructional development initiatives will tend to be more effective if the program-leaders will: (a) genuinely empower program-participants by having them actively incorporate into the program their unique professional experience/contributions; (b) reciprocally match their own supervisory styles with their supervisees' development levels in performing specific tasks; and (c) consistently model the professional skills being learned by program-participants.

Similarly, in a related study examining the experiences encountered by participants in an instructional development program over a three-year period, Ralph (1995b) found that the overall effectiveness of such a program was directly related to the degree that its leaders provided for key principles characterizing successful organizational change. These provisions were: (a) nurturing individuals' development, (b) resolving actual problems in the "real-world" situation, (c) building the morale of the group, (d) maintaining supportive networks, and (e) balancing both directiveness and flexibility unique to the context of each situation (Fullan, 1991; Ralph, 1995b; Ralph & Konchak, 1996).

It has been further established through recent research of educational improvement in institutional settings that all participants involved in a specific initiative will experience professional growth when the traditional top-down power hierarchy is re-structured, so as to provide for: the sharing of authority among participants, the accentuation of individuals' particular strengths, and the promoting of mutual sensitivity and respect among members (Knowles, 1989; McKeachie, 1986; Meyers, 1995).

While much of this research has concentrated on identifying specific techniques/strategies that instructional developers may utilize to help GTAs enhance their professional skills (and this is to be commended), there is need for a research emphasis focusing on the other equally important facet of this field. This aspect should explore how the instructional development leaders, themselves, may be helped to continue to advance in their own professional growth.

This present report examines how program developers in one university have begun to balance the professional development process both of its instructional development program leaders (IDPLs) and of its GTAs. These two developmental strands of the process are intertwined and integrated, but this dual relationship involves considerably more than a simplistic one-to-one correspondence that could be expressed narrowly by a statement such as: "The degree of professional development experienced by IDPLs is directly proportional to the degree of instructional development shown by GTAs." Such an assertion does identify a valued and probable goal of any ID effort; however, even though such a statement is valid, it is not sufficient, in itself, to represent the process that produces IDPL professional growth. There are three reasons for this limitation.

One is the difference in the duration of time within which the professional development of GTAs and IDPLs takes place. With respect to GTAs' instructional development, their initial mastery of specific teaching skills (although in one sense, it is on-going) generally occurs during the ID course or program that lasts for one or two semesters. On the other hand, the professional development of IDPLs tends to occur over a broader time span lasting several years. This development emerges among program-leaders as they continuously plan, deliver, assess, reflect upon and revise their ID programs and courses. The reflective element of this process typically requires an extended period of time for individuals to evaluate, modify, and re-test the various program components.

A second reason for rejecting this sim-

plistic equation for professional development is that the "direct proportion relationship" may, in fact, not reflect actual practice. Ralph (1995b), for instance, found that he, as an instructional developer, grew most in his ID professional skills as a result of some rather negative GTA responses to part of his early ID efforts for GTAs. This "conflict encounter" demonstrated that the developmental process, in this case, had an "inverse proportion" element, in that an apparent lack of GTA growth ultimately produced an increase in the leader's development.

Furthermore, it is also possible that high GTA achievement, as a result of an ID instructional development program, may not necessarily guarantee correspondingly high levels of IDPL development—especially if the programmers had already "plateaued" at a fixed level, or if they were already predisposed against adopting change by their demonstration of such traits as egotism, turf-protection, or uncertainty (Fullan & Miles, 1992).

A third reason why the degree of GTA growth in instructional skills does not necessarily reflect equivalent program-leader professional development is that the latter tends to occur when the program leaders, themselves, are not provided with the specific working conditions, environment, and leadership from their own supervisory personnel, which are all conducive to promoting this development. Programmers may be apt at providing such a nurturing context for the GTAs in their charge, but the organizational context within their own department or unit workplace may not reflect this same climate. Thus, their own professional development may suffer.

The following section of this paper highlights how the leaders of one ID initiative sought to enhance the professional growth of both the GTAs and the IDPLs involved in the program.

Method

This study gathered survey and observational data on professional growth from the IDPL and GTA participants in a three credit-unit course entitled "Introduction to University Teaching". This course had been designed for personnel having no formal preparation for university teaching.

Respondents

There was a team of three instructors who designed and delivered the 3-month course and who conducted its evaluation. At least two of the three professors were present at every weekly class session (each of which was 2 1/2 hours in duration). Two of the professors had worked together on conducting this program during the previous four years with a new group of GTAs each year, and they were thus able to make use of these former experiences to help refine the program examined in the present study.

In fulfilling their IDPL role, the three professors "fleshed out" the mandate assigned to them by senior university administrators: to create a non-credit, practical course designed for new university instructors, who had never taken any formal teacher training. One of the IDPLs was from the College of Education with a specialty in the supervision of instruction; one was from the Department of Chemistry, with a background in educational practice in the teaching of Chemistry, and the other was from the Department of English, with experience and interest in the instructional development of graduate teaching-assistants.

The IDPLs collaboratively planned and designed the course (see Appendix), they shared the teaching/facilitating of the weekly sessions, and they conducted both formative and summative assessments of each year's program. (These ongoing evaluations were to serve as the basis upon which subsequent program-improvements were to be made.)

Of the 10 GTAs who attended the course examined in this study, four were from outside of Canada (and were also ESL students). Seven of the ten GTAs were from the Department of Chemistry, two were from the Department of English, and one was from the College of Commerce. One of the ten had previously earned a B.Ed. degree, and had taught in a public school system. The other nine were neophyte instructors.

With respect to the methodology used for this study, it must be emphasized that the study emerged as an extension of and an ongoing investigation of a single program over a five-year period. To over-generalize from the present results of one case to other situations would be inappropriate and untenable. However, on the other hand, it was felt

that different institutions pursuing similar instructional-development efforts may be able to refer to this study's disclosures

> ...not to persuade, but to reveal...not to look *for* something...but to look *at* it....and to replace rhetoric and intention with openness to tell it like it is...(Wolcott, 1990, p. 99).

Data Collection

In order to determine the extent of professional growth that occurred among participants as a result of the ID program, information was gathered by means of a triangulated procedure using a series of pre- and post-program data-collection efforts. For the 10 GTAs, two of the instructors observed, video-taped, and assessed two in-class mini-lessons presented by each GTA. The GTAs' first presentation consisted of a two- to three-minute introduction, in which each person presented him/herself to the group during the first class-session. The second set of mini-lessons—consisting of a six- to ten-minute presentation by each GTA in front of the class on a subject related to their major field of teaching/research—was conducted during one session near the end of the semester. For this second set of "microteaches", each presenter was given brief oral and written feedback by the instructors and the GTAs on his/her teaching performance immediately following each mini-lesson.

Copies of the written assessments and notes of the oral feedback from both the pre- and post-sessions were retained by one of the instructors for the purpose of investigating the extent of the GTAs' instructional development over the four-month period.

In addition, the leaders requested the ten GTAs to complete a pre- and post-course written survey that recorded their individual perceptions of their own growth in instructional performance over the duration of the program (for the questions see Tables 1 and 2).

With respect to collecting data on the professional development of the three instructors, one of them recorded field notes that summarized their various discussions, deliberations, and decisions from five informal meetings held concerning the program. These meetings were held over a six-month span (before, during, and after the course). Further, the key findings from the prior four-year experience with the program (see Ralph, 1995b) were used to provide a set of foundational principles upon which the program-leaders drew to help design the program that was investigated in this present study.

Data Categorization and Analysis

GTAs. In order to ascertain the extent that GTAs internalized the instructional skills that were presented during the program, observations of two samples of their basic presentation skills (one pre- and one post-program session) were conducted—both by the fellow-GTAs in the class and by the program leaders.

The conceptual foundation upon which both of these oral and written evaluations were based—and, indeed, the overall structure on which the course was established—was adapted from the considerable body of research literature on teaching effectiveness (e g., see Anderson, 1996; Tuijnman, 1996; Wittrock, 1986). The course outline and the key instructional skills that were presented to and practiced by the GTAs enrolled in the program are shown in the Appendix. Using these skills as the standard of effectiveness, one of the professors wrote summary notes assessing the "teaching performance" of the GTAs during their initial mini-presentation in the first class-session. These short introductions were also video-taped, and re-played to the entire group at the end of that session. The program leaders gave general oral feedback about the strengths and limitations of these mini-presentations within the group-setting during this playback-period. One professor recorded these observations of the GTAs pre-program "teaching" for later comparison with their teaching performance observed during the post-program session. Here, the same instructional-skills standards were applied in evaluating participants' teaching performance at the end of the course.

In order to triangulate these comparative assessments of the GTAs' actual presentation skills, the researchers compared GTAs' pre- and post-program written self-reports of their own instructional effectiveness. (Questions from these two surveys are shown in Tables 1 and 2.)

Using the "constant comparison" technique advocated by qualitative researchers to analyze the written responses, the authors categorized and re-categorized the written data in order to ascertain if any basic trends in the subjects' responses were evident (Anderson & Burns, 1989; Bogdan & Biklen, 1990).

Emerging patterns identified among the survey data were compared to those found in the observation data for the purpose of seeking to ground any developing principles or propositions within the accumulated evidence—and not within isolated or pre-determined perceptions or opinions (Ralph & Konchak, 1996).

IDPLs. In contrast to the more formalized triangulation procedures used to analyse the data collected for the ten GTAs, the information gathered to investigate the three IDPLs' professional development was derived from a less formalized, though equally valid source. It consisted of a series of discussions, informal conversations, and reflective interactions of the three professors as they engaged in the weekly preparation, presentation, and assessment of each session of the program. The present author recorded field notes of the summaries of these meetings.

Some Findings and Discussion

With regard to the original definition cited earlier for "professional development" the findings of this present study showed that both the GTAs and the IDPLs grew in their respective professional skills. However, the GTAs' instructional growth was limited to their demonstration of a fairly narrow set generic instructional tasks (observable over the four-month period), while the IDPLs' professional development was more comprehensive. The latter was related less to discrete skills, and more to the leaders' pattern of reflective, decision-making activities and attitudes related to their evolving conception of what constitutes instructional development. This IDPL growth was thus observable over a more extended period of time compared to the more rapid GTAs' task-specific development. Moreover, this leader change could only be identified by comparing IDPLs' initial program decisions to those subsequently made throughout the four-year span in which the ID program was conducted.

Findings for GTAs

The findings that emerged from comparing the pre- and post-program observations of the GTAs' presentation skills as well as the two sets of GTAs' survey responses indicated that the group, on the whole, improved in their instructional performance.

A summary of the comparison of the present author's field notes on the GTAs pre- and post-session presentations showed that the subjects, as a group, demonstrated general improvement in the following areas: (a) they displayed greater confidence (i.e., less nervousness) in their "classroom presence" (e.g., better voice projection and modulation, improved eye-contact, and more positive "body language"); (b) they incorporated more instructional media (e.g., chalkboard, overhead projector, handouts); and (c) they incorporated a wider variety of instructional methods (i.e., several subjects supplemented their "lecture style" with oral questions, and brief group-discussion of short sample problems).

These findings demonstrated that the GTAs appeared to have internalized several of the core teaching skills considered to be fundamental for further professional development (Brandt, 1996).

Two areas in which the group as, a whole, did not show noticeable improvement between the pre- and post-program observations were: their modelling of correct oral and written English; and their willingness to move occasionally away from the front of the room while teaching (i.e., to break "the invisible six-foot leash" that typically "holds" instructors in one location). That is, the subjects continued to use informal language and slang, and to remain relatively stationary "at centre-stage". However, in order for individuals to break such long-standing habits not only demands their deliberate and conscious effort, but related research has further demonstrated that in order for educators to completely internalize a specific teaching behavior, they may require up to 25 practice-sessions—depending on the complexity of the skill (Showers, Joyce, & Bennett, 1987).

A comparison of the GTAs' self-reports, as summarized in Tables 1 and 2, also indi-

cated that they developed their instructional skills over the duration of the program. This finding not only confirmed the triangulation of the observation results, but it also verified what previous research has demonstrated: that the use of self-reports is a valid data-gathering technique (Ralph, 1995a).

In Table 2, the response rate for Question 1 indicates that the vast majority of GTAs developed in their overall view of effective instruction (90%, yes and 10%, no). Similarly, for Question 2, 90% of the respondents reported that they learned what they had initially identified as wanting to gain from the course. Their responses to Questions 1 and 2 indicate that they ended up seeing "effective teaching" as a complex process in which good instructors are engaged in much more than "the lecture" or than simply reading their notes to their classes. In fact, one respondent wrote: "I got what I wanted from this course, but I found that there was so much more to learn—more than I ever thought prior to this course..." Several respondents also reported that having to prepare and to present their micro-teachings in front of their peers and the video-camera, and then to undergo the group-assessment of their performance—and also to give public feedback to their peers—all combined to help boost their instructional competence and confidence.

During the final session of the course, the respondents were given back their pre-program survey-forms that they had completed in the first class-session. Thus, as they answered the post-program questionnaire, they were able to refer back to their initial responses. In comparing these earlier views of their own teaching characteristics, with those at the end of the program (i.e., the strengths and weaknesses, as shown under Question 3 in Table 2), only 10% of the respondents reported that their view of their own teaching had not changed. However, the vast majority reported that, because of their participation in both teaching and evaluating the "mini-lessons", they not only became much more aware of their own positive and negative teaching attributes, but that they had made progress in enhancing the former and in seeking to reduce the latter.

Incidentally, the respondent that reported little instructional growth over the duration of the program was an experienced teacher with a B.Ed. degree. Presumably, he had already internalized many of the core instructional competencies into his professional repertoire, and as a consequence, did not demonstrate the same degree of instructional growth shown by his classmates.

Findings for IDPLs

The data that were gathered by one of the professors regarding the informal collaborations among the instructors (including ongoing observations of the decision-making/planning/monitoring activities, in which they engaged concerning the ID program over the five years of its existence) confirmed that the leaders also experienced professional growth.

This growth among the leaders—although not as rapid nor as distinct as the GTAs' skill development during the four-month course—occurred at a different professional level of competence than that experienced by the GTAs. Moreover, the source of the evidence for the instructors' growth was less a comparison of pre- and post- course results, and more an ongoing observation of the evolving professional decisions and attitudes that the leaders demonstrated throughout the five-year period of the program.

A description of the mistakes that the instructors made during the first four years of the program has already been published (Ralph & Konchak, 1996; Ralph, 1995b). As a consequence, during the presently reported study, the leaders specifically planned that they would both deliberately avoid the pitfalls that had been present in the previous courses and, and consciously implement the key principles and practices shown to be effective (both in the literature and by the professors' accumulated experience) in enhancing the professional development of all participants.

These five principles and practices for professional improvement that were stated at the beginning of this report had not been implemented with certainty and consistency during the first four courses (Ralph, 1995b). However, the program-leaders were explicit in ensuring that these provisions were to be particularly emphasized during this fifth year. The principles, together with how the IDPLs sought to apply them in the current program, are summarized below.

1. Individual development. In keeping with the tenets of cognitive psychology, the program-leaders ensured that GTAs practiced and applied the generic teaching skills specific to their own fields. Also, individuals completed personalized pre-and post-surveys on their own teaching performance; and, as well, the peer- and professor-assessments received by each GTA were geared to each participant's own teaching performance. Moreover, the instructors ensured that they incorporated the participants' pre-program survey-data (see Table 1) as they planned and implemented subsequent learning activities that reflected individuals' needs and interests.

2. Realistic application. The program-leaders set the course agenda so that participating GTAs could immediately apply the instructional skills being learned in order to benefit their own daily practice during the ensuing weeks. The findings from both the observations and the surveys appeared to indicate that this objective was being accomplished; indeed, one respondent wrote for Question 3 on the post-survey: "Yes [my view on my own teaching strengths and weaknesses have changed]. I have already changed my tutorials."

When participants observed that instituting these teaching techniques and methods could enhance their competence and confidence in their unique professional situations, they appeared to value them as relevant and meaningful.

3. Group/personal balance. The program-leaders continually emphasized the integration of the generic teaching skills common to instruction in all subjects with the reflective/creative component characterizing each individual and his/her personality and teaching situation. In an attempt to avoid the chronic problem that appeared to persist in the previous four courses—in which participants perceived the instructors as forcing all GTAs to adopt "a one size fits all" prescriptive list of skills (Ralph, 1995b)—the leaders this time were careful to communicate repeatedly three key points. One was that although teaching is a complex process, there is an essential set of basic, foundational skills upon which the professional may build further creative skills (Brandt, 1996). A second principle was that because each person and his/her situation is unique, professional teachers need to be free to adapt techniques to match the particular context (Ralph, 1993). The third point emphasized that even though the whole class was collaborating in planning, practicing, and assessing each other's teaching as a whole group, a major objective was for participants to be able to apply, to reflect upon, to monitor, and to adjust the various instructional components to match their specific contexts.

The survey responses and the informal conversations observed among GTAs and instructors (and with former university "master-teacher" award recipients at the concluding pizza-session) confirmed that the majority of participants felt that the course did provide an adequate blend of collaboration and individualism. Moreover, during one or two of the earlier class sessions the whole group had entered into lively debate over the merits/disadvantages of specific instructional approaches and issues. Here, the professors were again cognizant of accepting divergent views with tact—but yet of demanding contributors to substantiate their particular views. Care was taken, however, not to be inflexible in promoting any single view without providing convincing and persuasive arguments to back one's position.

4. Supportive resources. This principle—as was also the case in the previous courses—was not problematic. In fact, both the GTAs and IDPLs throughout the five-year period of the program's operation have appeared to appreciate and benefit from the high degree of internal and external support granted to the program by senior university officials, faculty deans, department heads, and the graduate student association. This support annually takes the form of partial salary stipends for the course professors, release-time for accomplishing course tasks, provision of video equipment and photocopying, and a consistent demonstration of moral support by university administrators.

This original ID program had been the brainchild of two senior departmental administrators as a result of an informal discussion over their back fence one summer evening (They were neighbors). Thus, these two administrators had a special desire to see the initiative succeed. They not only consistently provided the material and psycho-social/emotional support by allocating the above-mentioned resources, but they occasionally

dropped in on the weekly class-sessions, and engaged in the activities that happened to be going on at the time. Two of them also offered their own home and acted as hosts for the informal "pizza sessions" that were held at the conclusion of each course. During these social gatherings, lively discussion, active interchange and serious debate about teaching occurred—between and among the attendees—whether they were graduate students, professors, or administrators. (The formal evaluations conducted each year consistently indicated that these gatherings were one of the highlights of the ID course).

Thus, although the senior administrators did not mandate the details of the course, nor teach it, their tangible support and presence throughout its duration was influential in its effectiveness. If such support networks had been lacking, then it is highly probable that the instructional development program in its present form would have ceased to exist.

5. Situation context. This principle that was prominent in the deliberations of the course-leaders, in one sense, summarized the above four themes and was the key guiding-factor in conducting the fifth-year program. Essentially, the ID program examined in the present study was one of instructional supervision, in which a "supervisor" (i.e., any educator who fulfills a temporary or permanent leadership role) assists a "supervisee" (i.e., any educator who desires to improve in a specific skill or task) in his/her professional growth (Ralph, 1996).

"Contextual Supervision" describes one type of instructional supervision that may be applied when a supervisor synchronizes his/her leadership style (consisting of varying degrees of "task" and "human" elements) with a supervisee's task-specific development level (consisting of confidence and ability dimensions) at a specific point in space and time. Then, as the supervisees develop in performing the particular skill, their supervisors reciprocate by adjusting their supervisory (i.e., combination of task/human) responses, according to the formers' professional needs (Ralph, 1993).

As the program-leaders in the present study implemented this principle in working with the GTAs during the course-work, the former were able to tailor their supervisory styles to match each supervisee's unique stage of development for the various instructional tasks. They thus were able to avoid responding to everyone with the same combination of directiveness and supportive responses. Consequently, the program-leaders demonstrated a degree of professional growth over the five-year period of the program, in that—by the time of the present study—they had developed their capabilities to detect and avoid the prescriptive stance of overemphasizing a "one size fits all" instructional approach. The IDPLs digressed from emphasizing the predominantly didactic approach of transmitting a set of knowledge and skills to the GTAs, to stressing that individuals were to adapt and modify the various instructional skills, in order to relate them to their own style and to that of their own students.

Of equal importance, the leaders also became more pro-active, by the fifth year, in urging GTAs, themselves, to strike a sensible balance between the application of the essential (but not sufficient) generic skills of teaching and the inclusion of reflective and creative considerations arising from the contextual complexities unique to each GTA's instructional scenario(s).

Concluding Remarks

This study of the fifth-year of an on-going instructional development program designed by one Western Canadian University for beginning instructors at the undergraduate level has demonstrated that both the GTAs and the IDPLs progressed in their respective domains of professional development. For the GTAs in the short-term (i.e., during the four-month period of the course) the present findings confirmed what previous related research has repeatedly found: that novice teachers become more proficient in their performance of generic instructional skills, if certain training conditions are met (namely, provision for individual growth, relevance to reality, meeting both group and personal needs, maintenance of a supportive atmosphere, and provision for each person's contextual situation).

With respect to the IDPLs, their professional development occurred at a broader conceptual and administrative level—and it was only observable over a longer time-frame—in this case, a five-year period. Their professional growth involved a series of tri-

als, successes, failures, modifications and collaborative decision-making. This present study further suggested that the same five principles characterizing effective change for the GTAs were also instrumental in facilitating the organizers' leadership development—except that these principles operated at a different professional level for the IDPLs than for the GTAs.

Although the professional growth of the IDPLs was more visible by the program's fifth year—as compared to the more discrete and measurable skills achieved by each year's successive group of GTAs—it seemed that more time was required for this evidence to emerge.

The key source of evidence of this leader development was the ongoing collaborative deliberations and actions that occurred among the professors over the five-year period. Although they apparently realized what principles needed to be followed in the program's early years, they failed to implement them consistently until the fifth year.

In assessing the effectiveness of the early years of this ID program, Ralph (1995b) suggested three possible reasons why the IDPLs did not follow-through with their intended changes in the first years of the course. One reason was the IDPLs' perception that there were simply too many other program changes that emerged each year (e.g., successive increases in enrollment, and an increased number of departments being represented). It was thus felt that to incorporate a major shift within the original course emphasis (i.e., adding more participant individualization) might end up jeopardizing the just-established unity and structure of the program. The IDPLs were concerned that this possibility could engender further GTA dissatisfaction with the course.

A second related reason was the IDPLs' pervasive fear of taking a risk by giving up what they believed was the relatively safe "direct teaching" mode—and which they perceived as having been at least relatively successful during the early years of the program. Too, they were uncertain as to whether the risk of failure of their incorporation of the more student-centered approach could lead to their humiliation in front of the course participants, and also before their peers and university administrators.

A third factor influencing the IDPLs not to initiate the intended program changes at an earlier date was their apparent reluctance to confront any potential student/peer dissatisfaction directly. Rather than treating such interpersonal dissonance as a legitimate problem to be collaboratively addressed, they appeared to view it as a "threat to their expertise" or as a "challenge to their authority" that was to either be disdained or ignored (Fullan & Miles, 1992).

A critical factor that finally seemed to influence the IDPLs to initiate the intended improvements in the program during the fifth year was their apparent effectiveness in convincing the GTAs that: (a) the group was "in this thing together" to help each other grow; (b) individuals were to apply both generic and creative skills contextually; (c) the group goal was to both "give and take" in the supervisory-situation of micro-teaching and evaluating; and (d) all participants were to take supervisory and evaluatory comments "seriously but not personally."

These caveats were emphasized throughout the course, and the IDPLs were as conscientious about applying them to their own organizational and supervisory work and relationships, as the GTAs seemed to be in practicing the teaching skills within the instructional-skills domain.

With respect to the limitation mentioned earlier against overgeneralizing from a single case, Charles (1995) further cautions that the findings emanating from this present type of research "...although illuminating the phenomena under investigation, do not seem applicable to other groups and settings, thus limiting the practical value of the research" (p. 152). For instance, it could be argued that the specific personality flaws of the IDPLs in this study were major factors that prevented wider success during the earlier years of the program. Perhaps, it was pure ego-protection and/or fear of failure that inhibited the IDPLs from implementing the improvements they knew were needed. By the fifth year, however, they appeared willing and ready to hold their pride and anxieties in abeyance, and they specifically enacted their initial intentions. They believed, and acted on their beliefs, that the consequences of their actions would be positive for the ID program, and for their own professional growth.

Nevertheless, the present author is in accord with Donmoyer (1990) whose overall

assessment of qualitative-research methodology is:

> Let case studies not find answers, but raise new questions...let them expand the repertoire of social constructions available to practitioners...to look for transferability not generalizabilty...a "fittingness" or similarity between two contexts, and a congruence... (pp. 182-183).

It is hoped that the results of this present study on the professional development both of GTAs and of program-leaders will contribute to the body of accumulating knowledge regarding how to enhance the educational growth of all stakeholders in higher education.

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TABLE 1: Pre-Program Survey Results: The Questions and Summaries of GTAs' Responses (*n*=10)

Questions and categories of responses	Response rate (*n* = %)
1. *What is "effective instruction"?*	
- to motivate/interest students (active, confident, informative)	70
- to give clear, concise presentations	60
- to know/plan/prepare/use variety	60
- to be open/fair/respectful/considerate	20
- to meet individual learning needs	20
- to keep focus and be flexible	10
2. *What do you want from this course?*	
- to improve presentation/communication/speaking skills	60
- to learn/build repertoire of "effective teaching" skills	50
- to encourage active-learning/student response/good discussion	30
- to gain tips on clear planning/arranging/outlining	20
- to "read" students' reactions/moods	10
- to overcome nervousness	10
- "I come with an open mind"	10
3. *What do you consider to be your own teaching strengths and weaknesses?*	
Strengths	
- enjoy social interaction (rapport, at ease, confident)	80
- committed/optimistic	40
- good at planning	10
- "I don't really know, yet..."	10
Weaknesses	
- lack public speaking skills	70
- lack correct oral & written language	10
- weak at individualizing program	10
- "I'm just starting"	10

Note. For each question, figures may not total 100 because respondents wrote varying numbers of comments. Percentages are rounded.

TABLE 2: Post-Program Survey Results: The Questions and Summaries of GTA's Responses (*n*=10)

Question and categories of responses	Response rate (*n*=%)
1. *Has your view of "effective instruction" changed? Explain.*	
Yes	
- "effective instruction" is more complex than originally thought	30
- have broader view of "cross cultural" education	10
- see more in relation to university structure	10
- have improved in the "finer points", and in a "one-to-one" approach	10
- it showed that more confidence was needed	10
- it is more than "classroom action" (e.g., planning, relationships, grading)	10
- see more of a need for rational and well-organized materials	10
No	
- original definition was accurate	10
2. *Do you believe you learned what you wanted to?*	
Yes	
- gained confidence and skill in speaking, posing questions, planning	30
- covered all topics that were identified	20
- learned more on handling ethical dilemmas	10
- learned to motivate and interest students	10
Somewhat	
- "I've learned, but found that there was much more to know"	10
No	
- "I wanted more individualized feedback on my performance"	10
3. *Has your view on your own teaching strengths and weaknesses changed? Explain.*	
Yes	
- enhanced the strengths and reduced weaknesses	40
- became aware of previously "unconscious" traits	20
- put "teaching" into a holistic context	20
- have already put these changes into my tutorials	10
No	
- "I already had a B.Ed...I haven't really changed..."	10
4. *Other comments?*	
- "a positive experience"..."recommend it to all GTAs"	20

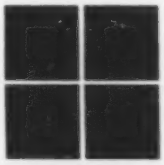
Note. For each question, figures may not total 100 because respondents wrote varying numbers of comments. Percentages are rounded.

Appendix

Tentative Course Outline*
Introduction to University Teaching, 1996

1	Introduction	"Effective Teaching". Personal introductions. Self analysis of "style".
2.	Communication Media	Mini-micro -teaching... videotaping of "baseline" teaching/delivery skills (approx. 2 min. each). "Speaking and Delivery Skills". Use of instructional media to enhance teaching/learning.
3.	Planning	Basic theoretical background to teaching and learning. Bloom's taxonomy. Principles of organizing and preparing 'units' and 'lessons'. Observation and critiquing recorded 'lessons'.**
4	Presenting	Structuring and presenting effective lectures and other teaching approaches.
5	Questioning/Responding	Developing and posing effective questions and generating responses & discussions.
6	Achievement	Designing assignments. Thinking skills & problem solving. Monitoring performance. Testing/Examining.
7	Other	Topics of interest/need/request. e.g. Inter-Cultural considerations in teaching/learning.
8	Ethics	Issues of personal/professional conduct
9	University Structure	'Political', organizational, academic, curricular and college/departmental characteristics.
10	Informal/Social	Informal "Pizza" session with a "Master Teacher" ...as a wind-up gathering.

* The timetable is flexible and may be have to be juggled to accommodate guests.
**Some sessions will include analysis/discussion of video-taped teaching exercises by the members of the class and/or from the "Critical Incidents" series.



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By Samuel J. Rogal

Developing and Maintaining Cultural and Intellectual Enrichment Opportunities for Students, Faculty, Staff, and Community

In less populated areas, the public, nonresidential community college may serve as the only means by which students, faculty, staff, and community have access to speakers and cultural entertainment/enrichment. Therefore, no matter how difficult the task of developing and maintaining audience support, the community college must not abandon this essential aspect of its overall mission. Cultural and intellectual enrichment programs eventually achieve success if the college will maintain its commitment (no matter how large or small) of time, facilities, and money.

NATIONALLY AND generally, public two-year colleges exist and function under mandated responsibilities to offer quality education to students and to provide them with access to as much learning as the institution can possibly provide and the students can, in turn, possibly attain. Since not all learning can or should be channelled into the traditional classroom/laboratory courses and credits necessary to produce certificates and degrees, all public two-year colleges need seriously to consider offering to their students opportunities for enrichment that extend beyond the boundaries of classroom lectures, laboratory experiments, and the covers of textbooks. Essentially, students, faculty, administrative and support staff (both nonprofessional and professional), and the resident community must be encouraged to come together, with reasonable frequency, to engage in conversations among and about the various academic disciplines, professions, and vocations that will motivate intellectual inquiry and broaden cultural awareness and interest. Such conversations may be extremely vocal, with an audience listening and exchanging ideas with speakers; or, they may be silently thoughtful, as in the viewing of a visual exhibition or sitting and listening to a demonstration or performance.

Although the encouragement of cultural and intellectual enrichment will eventually yield some form or degree of positive results, the task becomes an arduous one at the level of the two-year public institution. First, students who plan to transfer to four-year institutions—even though their intended baccalaureate majors or minors may be in one of the humanities or fine arts disciplines—find themselves restricted to lower division general education courses, with little opportunity for study in the specialized (or upper-division) content areas of those majors. In other words, they may, as college freshmen or sophomores, be eager to declare majors; however, they usually will not have, at the

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lower division level, opportunities to nurture and thus appreciate fully those interests. Thus, the potential history major may enroll in lower division classes in United States history, Western world art history, and Latin American history; whether he or she will rush to hear a lecture on the history of medicine in urban America or listen to and view a presentation on the history and development of portrait painting in Europe remains another matter. Whether a freshman or sophomore pre-baccalaureate engineering major will attend, voluntarily, a lecture on engineering research and the invention of high speed steel depends, most likely, on "what's in it for me" philosophy. Unfortunately, the instruments of grades, points, and extra credit have become too important, in the mind of the community college student, the young as well as the more chronologically mature; they represent the weapons by which that student hacks his or her way through an overly materialistic educational system.

Second, the public two-year college student population, by far a non-residential group, tends to be especially transient and constantly on the move. Simply and frankly, students at two-year public colleges spend as little time as possible at the institution. Part-time (or even full-time) jobs, family responsibilities and travel arrangements translate into little else beyond learning that confines itself to the walls of a traditional classroom. Indeed, such phenomena as telecourses, distance learning systems, off-campus extension classes, and correspondence courses mean that a number of students never even set foot on a college campus, yet manage to earn degrees or certificates. Day students may return in the evening, but principally for night classes, work in the library, or time in the computer or science labs; night students rarely can or will enter a college building during the day.

However, the majority of public two-year nonresidential colleges carry with them the name "community," and therein lies a fertile plot of ground for attempts at cultural and intellectual enrichment. In a significant number of rural or small town areas, the public two-year college represents to the community the principal source for cultural and intellectual enrichment—in certain instances, perhaps the *only* source. The local college may house the largest facility for such purposes and may have the only available fiscal and human resources for sponsorship and promotion of events—even if the events do not extend beyond the college's own music, art, or theatre departments. In other words, aside from the nearest urban center, the shopping mall film theatres, or the home television set, whatever intellectual or cultural event that the college sponsors may be the only game in the town and for the town. Insofar as concerns the urban public two-year institution, there exists a large enough population base that a sufficient number of community persons will attend regularly cultural and intellectual events at the nearby college.

The problem that immediately presents itself for the institution committed to providing cultural and intellectual enrichment focuses on how to bring the various groups together. After all, if such enrichment is to constitute a meaningful educational enterprise, then students, faculty, nonteaching staff, and community members should have opportunities for meaningful educational and intellectual conversation. Indeed, for the students, particularly, encouragement to take advantage of those opportunities should become a high educational or even curricular priority. At Illinois Valley Community College, for example, a small (3700-3900 students) public two-year institution located in a rural area in north-central Illinois, and far enough from Chicago to limit access to the culture of that city, two instruments have been molded as attempts to provide cultural and intellectual enrichment: the College Honors Program Colloquium and the Arts and Letters Series. In principle and on paper, both would appear to address the problem.

The College Honors Program, with its emphasis upon challenging the academically talented student, includes a colloquium, in which students meet, once every other week throughout the year for two hours, to hear speakers present and lead discussions on a variety of topics to which the students would not normally be exposed in their lower division courses. The speakers—faculty members at Illinois Valley, professors from senior colleges and universities throughout Illinois, as well as prominent non-academicians—bring their specialties to the campus. Topics range from ways of reading Shakespeare through Somerset Maugham's gay characters; from labor-management confrontation

to life in Nicaragua; from aspects of worship to an assessment of the Reagan presidency; from the role of plastics in solid waste management to engineering research and the invention of high speed steel; from insects and writing poetry to advertising and market strategies and to the poems of Phillis Wheatley. Each honors program student enrolls in Humanities 109, "The Honors Colloquium," for which he or she earns one semester hour of credit (to be repeated for four semesters). Students receive, two weeks in advance of each presentation, materials to be read in preparation for listening intelligently to the speaker and participating in the discussion or activity. For the most part, honors students tend to comprise a highly motivated and active audience, and generally the sessions prove lively. These students do not require the writing of quizzes, examinations, or papers to stimulate their participation. In addition, all honors colloquia are free and open to the public—College faculty and staff, College students, local high school students and adults from the community. The Honors Program publicizes the Colloquium in the newspapers, and the size of the audience tends, of course, to be determined by local interest in the speaker and/or topic. Most important, all members of the College faculty receive the Colloquium program for the entire academic year in advance. Therefore, if they wish, faculty can integrate certain related presentations into their course schedules and even *require* their non-Honors Program students to attend.

The Arts and Letters series serves the same populations, but does not directly anchor itself to a formal academic degree program or course. As the title indicates, it combines lectures and fine arts events. Depending upon the financial obligation of the College, a number (but not all) require the purchase of tickets at extremely modest prices. Speakers lecture on such topics as women's suffrage, the history of modern medicine, the Holocaust, minority image in the media, and nursing research. Fine arts presentations include two College drama productions, the College's annual madrigal dinner, music recitals by Illinois Valley Community College students and outside artists, and a ballet production. In addition, the Series presents, principally for younger students and their parents, a demonstration in one of the physical sciences, sponsored partially by a local chemical company. Again, as with the Honors Program Colloquium, faculty receive an advanced schedule for the entire academic year, and thus have the opportunity to integrate as little or as much of the Series into their course content and requirement. For example, a music history instructor may provide students with the option of writing a formal library research paper or attending all of the Series musical performances and preparing a brief reaction and/or critique of each. Another art, music, or theatre history instructor may require that students do both.

One would perhaps agree that the table of intellectual and cultural enrichment has been bountifully set at Illinois Valley Community College. However, convincing the various constituencies to partake of the meal becomes a different matter. As indicated above, students, of course, can be induced or even required to attend, particularly when an event relates directly or even peripherally to the material of a particular course. One should keep in mind, however, that captive audiences do not always create the best climate for active learning. Nonetheless, force-feeding does indeed constitute a legitimate means to provide substance for the starving. An instructor may play the extra-credit game, announce required attendance, or weave lectures, discussions, and presentations directly into the requirements of the course syllabus. Finally, a college can fall back upon the tradition of the convocation, where students must attend regularly as part of their overall degree or certificate requirements. Such an exercise may emit the aroma of the high school assembly, but if the events prove of interest and high quality, then it will serve its function.

As a variation on the convocation theme, and as a concession to the "what's-in-it-for-me" devotees, Illinois Valley Community College offers a one-semester-hour course, "Special Topics in the Humanities: Performances." Students do not have to spend a single minute inside of a classroom; instead, they attend no less than fifteen lectures, presentations, exhibitions, plays, concerts, and the like. Ten of those events must occur on campus, and all must be identified, after negotiations between the student and the instructor, as "culturally enriching." After each event,

the student writes a short essay on his or her observations and critical reactions. The instructor determines the student's final grade from grades earned on those essays.

Regular attendance at intellectual and cultural events by college faculty, administrators, board of trustee members, and nonprofessional staff most certainly cannot be required—unless it becomes a contractual condition of employment. Actually, the presence of such persons, particularly faculty and academic administrators, becomes a matter of the conscience. They must ask themselves if they wish to serve as role models for students and members of the community, outwardly demonstrating their interest and support for all that the institution has to offer. An interesting question to raise and answer would concern the number of community college faculty, administrators, and staff that receives complimentary admission to one or more of the college athletic events as opposed to receiving free admission for those cultural and intellectual events for which there is an admission charge. The obvious answer reveals an equally obvious attitude problem. Another form of attitude problem occurs when certain faculty, administrators, and staff claim work and prior commitments as valid excuses for maintaining cultural and intellectual sterility. However, those same persons always find time for idle chit-chat, coffee-breaks, extended lunch hours, or on-campus exercises in physical wellness. Those teaching faculty who claim that they cannot take time away from the demands of their course syllabi to require students to attend lectures or performances tend to be the very same faculty who request absences from their classes for personal business. In the simplest of terms, if the development and nurturing of a cultural and intellectual atmosphere at a particular institution does not exist as a high priority, then respectable attendance at such events will always be a problem.

Insofar as concerns the community outside the college, the cultural and intellectual interests of adult residents will fairly well determine what events and performances they will or will not attend. Residents of inner cities and suburbs, of farms and small towns; factory workers and middle managers, corporate executives and professional persons—all have different cultural attitudes and interests. Certainly, the college may cater to the majority of those interests and attitudes. That strategy may increase attendance at events, but it may or may not produce the desired types, varieties, and levels of intellectual and cultural enrichment. Again, within any community or group of communities, one can only provide the fare, issue the invitations, and trust to chance. The smaller and less diverse the area, the higher rise the odds against significant levels of participation. The college cannot reasonably be expected to function within the spheres of such extensive variety as practiced within the television and motion picture industries.

In the end, those with responsibilities for promoting cultural and intellectual enrichment programs on the campuses of two-year public nonresidential colleges have only one means for surmounting the problems of low attendance and/or lack of support. Simply, they must abandon neither hope nor effort. The key for survival (as long as the funding holds out) is to continue the effort, no matter how small the crowds or how tight the budgets. Only through sheer effort and labor will such programs gain footholds within the college campus and convince all members of the college community that intellectual inquiry and cultural enrichment represent essential ingredients in and for the overall process known as higher education. To abandon the effort means to turn away from the mission and to ignore the mandate.

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Student Test Anxiety: What Can College Instructors Do to Help Reduce It?

The authors review the components of students' test anxiety, examine the types and sources of anxiety, and explore how instructors can help to reduce students' anxiety.

By Claire E. Weinstein & Anastasia S. Hagen

MARIA IS A GOOD student, but dreads taking tests. Even though she studies her course material carefully and feels she really knows it, when she walks into class to take an exam she begins to panic. Tim also wants to succeed in college, but he has a very active social life and participates in a number of extracurricular activities. Tim spends a fair amount of time studying, but he often finds himself not fully prepared for his exams. He often panics in testing situations and worries about his performance in school. Like Maria, he spends a lot of his time both before and during the test worrying about how he will do and the consequences of failure.

The Components of Test Anxiety

These students suffer from high test anxiety. For many years we thought that test anxiety was manifested only in physiological symptoms—sweaty palms, "butterflies in the stomach," nervous tics, tense muscles, and rapid breathing. Now we know that anxiety has two major components: cognitive and physiological. The physiological component, which is generally referred to as emotionality, refers to how much attention students pay to the symptoms of their increased physiological arousal (examples above). The cognitive component, which is generally referred to as worry, refers to students' concerns about their academic performance: Are they good enough to make it? What will happen if they flunk out?

While the physiological component is important, it is the cognitive component, worry, that negatively affects students' academic performance. Excessive worrying pulls students' attention away from the academic task, whether this is preparing for or taking a test, reading a text assignment, or listening in class. For example, if students are worrying about the grade they will earn on a test or the consequences of a bad grade, then their attention is directed toward their own anxious thinking and away from answering the questions. Students may have difficulty remembering what they studied, or misread the instructions or stem of a question. In fact, highly anxious students often have less time to take an examination than other students because they are spending so much of their time worrying about their performance rather than concentrating and focusing their attention on answering the test questions.

Worry—The Enemy of Effective Concentration

Worrying about academic performance or achievement usually is manifested in negative thoughts: (1) how the individual compares with other students (e.g., "These students are all younger and a lot smarter than I am."); (2) the consequences of failing an exam or a course (e.g., "I'll never pass this test! Well, I can forget about ever becoming an accountant."); and (3) the implications of failure for students' self concepts and their perceptions of their abilities (e.g., "I must not be very smart if I am having so much trouble with school.").

A number of problems can result from this type of thinking. First, worrying is not task-focused thinking. Worrying involves

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having self-focused thoughts, usually negative, so students are often not able to concentrate fully on the academic task at hand, particularly if it is difficult. Their attention is divided between task-relevant thoughts and worrying (task-irrelevant thoughts). Because they are not able to fully concentrate on the academic task, their performance is often not an accurate indicator of their knowledge or expertise. Second, worrying can lead to poor performance, which can reinforce the negative self-thoughts, resulting in an increasing spiral of negative thoughts interfering with performance. Over time, students may give up hope and decide to drop out of school rather than face further occasions for failure. Finally, students' self-concepts and their feelings about themselves and their competence can suffer.

Identifying the Type or Source of Students' Test Anxiety

There are basically two different types of test-anxious students. The first are the students with relatively poor study skills. They have trouble learning course material in a way that makes it meaningful and memorable. Lacking a reasonable repertoire of learning and study strategies makes it difficult to be effective and efficient as a student. These students are often unprepared for tests or other evaluative tasks. The anxiety they experience is understandable given their accurate evaluation of their preparation and the probability of performing poorly.

The second type are the students who have a reasonable repertoire of learning and study strategies. These students know how to study and learn the material, but they have problems when they have to demonstrate that knowledge in testing or in other evaluative situations. By worrying, they deprive themselves of the opportunity to demonstrate accurately what they have learned and the skills they have mastered.

Given these two types of students, it is important to know something about the general nature of students' anxiety as well as the specific problems a given individual might be experiencing. One way to get this information is by using published, or widely available, measures of test anxiety, such as: the Learning and Study Strategies Inventory (LASSI) (Weinstein, Palmer, and Schulte, 1987), which includes a scale designed to measure student anxiety and worry about school performance; the revised Worry-Emotionality Scale (Morris, Davis, and Hutchins, 1981); or the Test Anxiety Scale (Sarason, 1972). If you do not have access to formal scales, then you could interview students about the anxiety they feel and what they think might be contributing to it. These types of discussions, on either an individual or class basis, can often help students to become more aware of their level of anxiety, identify the ways in which it may be interfering with their academic performance, and encourage them to do something about it.

How Instructors Can Help Reduce Students' Anxiety

After identifying the type of anxiety a student may be experiencing, the next step is trying to help the student do something about it. For students with poor learning and study strategies, it is helpful to refer them to learning assistance specialists or developmental educators. Many campuses now have learning-to-learn or study skills courses that can help students improve their learning strategies repertoire and the effectiveness of their study habits and practices. You can also help students develop more effective study and learning strategies by demonstrating and modeling these processes as part of your classroom instruction.

For those students who have a repertoire of effective strategies but suffer from worrying about how they will perform on exams and the consequences of failure, referrals often have to be made to counselors or learning assistance specialists. These students need additional training to learn how to monitor their thoughts and to substitute task-relevant thoughts for task-irrelevant thoughts. These students need to learn how to monitor the content of their thoughts so that they can quickly become aware of when they are going off-task and redirect their attention back to the test.

A simple technique you can teach your students to use for this purpose is called thought stopping. While thought stopping does not deal with the psychological problems

that may underlie test anxiety (such as poor self-concept and low self-esteem), it does give students a simple tool to reduce its negative impact on performance. Basically, this technique involves getting students to practice monitoring their thoughts so that they become aware of whether or not they are focusing on an academic task or on their worry. At first, they might want to monitor themselves (in practice situations) at 30-second intervals. As they start to practice thought stopping, they will be able to rapidly increase this interval to several minutes and eventually get to the point where they will monitor just a few times during an entire test.

The purpose of this monitoring is to help students become more aware of their thoughts and when they go off-task. Whenever the students find they are worrying about their performance rather than concentrating on answering the questions, they need to picture a stop sign or some type of wall and say "STOP!!" to themselves. They then redirect their attention to studying for the test or taking the test and continue until the next check. Over time, they will be able to quickly realize when their attention has wandered and refocus on the test.

There are other things instructors can do to help students who suffer from test anxiety: provide practice tests so that students can become familiar with the task and the types of questions; use mastery testing whenever possible; discuss test-taking skills and how to create a test plan. These methods are designed to help familiarize students with taking tests and with the skills required to demonstrate effectively what they have learned.

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Multiculturalism, Strategic Planning, The Urban Campus, and Recruiting Good College Faculty

The following book reviews involve titles of interest to professional development practitioners.

Multiculturalism

***Multiculturalism in the College Curriculum: A Handbook of Strategies for Faculty* by Marilyn Lutzker. Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1995, 151 pp., $49.95.**

Reviewed by Maria Bryant-Serrano

The implications of multiculturalism in the college curriculum have been widely discussed in the recent past.Today notions of common culture, cultural literacy, the decline of America, the erosion of community, and celebration of difference, otherness, voice, subjectivity and critical pedagogy continue to structure the multicultural debate.

Marilyn Lutzker's book is a tool kit of strategies and resources for those instructors interested in creating, finding and using a multicultural perspective in the classroom.The author assumes that a multicultural perspective is a serious goal, and as such, the book is structured as a practical handbook for instructors interested in the possibility of "middle way" changes that bridge both traditional and radical restructuring efforts via micro-changes of individual courses. Lutzker indicates the book is not designed to structure institutional macro changes; although, she briefly elaborates on some of the theoretical models designed to map various levels of curriculum transformation efforts (e.g., exclusion, little boxes, specialized studies, diversity requirements, and a transformed curriculum) at both the micro and macro level.

The book is divided into two parts. Part One consists of five chapters on strategies including sections on groundwork for a multicultural approach, classroom strategies (e.g., activities and resources), student projects, reactions and interactions regarding multicultural education. Part Two offers a wide ranging list of resources for students and instructors including an annotated bibliography, and an excellent discussion of the Library of Congress subject headings system aimed at maximizing on-line searches. The book concludes with an appendix of sample work sheets for student projects, a list of publishers and multicultural books.

Lutzker urges instructors to examine whether approaches to infusing a multicultural perspective will be explicit or implicit, and warns of potential hostility from students regarding the relevance of such material in the college curriculum. Although Lutzker understands the power of the instructor to decide on course content, the author excludes a discussion of the ways in which institutional culture along with instructors' perceptions might limit the possibility of change as a result of a perceived threat to academic freedom and a potential erosion of the so-called canon. Lutzker also underscores the significance of language in a multicultural world; although, the author capitalizes Spanish surnames rather than using the customary accentuation of Spanish surnames.

Considering this book is aimed at faculty, the book offers limited insight regarding the theoretical and conceptual issues associated with a multicultural perspective, particularly the process by which curriculum change

takes place, and how instructors arrive at the "frequently cited reasons for not including diversity." In addition, an elaboration on the meaning of multiculturalism and diversity would have assisted those in the beginning stages of incorporating multiculturalism.

Despite some of the omissions mentioned, this book will be useful for faculty members who are in the beginning stages of infusing race, class, and gender into the college curriculum. For those at more advanced institutional level changes, the book will prove useful as a resource for students. Faculty, administrators, planners, students, and human resources personnel will find this book helpful in selecting from the gamut of possible strategies and resources to include a multicultural perspective in the curriculum as well as in the workplace.

The appearance of this tool kit should be welcomed by all those concerned with race, gender and class issues in the curriculum. It presents a wealth of strategies and resources in a jargon-free language, and would make an excellent addition to private collections, faculty resource centers and libraries in general.

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Strategic Planning

***Strategic Planning: A Human Resource Tool for Higher Education*, Edited by Kathleen M. Alvino.Washington, DC: The College and University Personnel Association, 1995, 121.**

Reviewed by Manuel London

This compact book of 8 articles by experienced practitioners is an excellent overview of strategic planning in higher education. It conveys basic concepts and creative ideas. The editor's goals are "to provide human resource practitioners with a clear, practical, structural approach to strategic planning [that] builds a foundation for the human resource function to be a viable partner in an institution's planning process" (p. v). In this sense, the human resource function informs as well as supports the strategic direction of the institution.

The book begins with Gregory Lozier's crisp overview of strategic planning processes. The chapter outlines key concepts and definitions, planning typologies, and stages of the strategic planning process. Lozier describes methods for analyzing external threats and opportunities and internal strengths and weaknesses. He asserts that the process of doing strategic planning may be more important than the actual plan in that planning should involve multiple constituencies inside and outside of the campus community. As such, the process can enhance the development of the institution—for instance, promoting communication, teamwork, and common understanding.

John Dunn's chapter on conceptualizing the problem to be solved by strategic planning offers guidance for how human resource professionals can help university presidents understand the planning process. He argues, "Planning processes that are undertaken in the absence of a clearly identified problem to solve or a direction to take typically produce large amounts of both paper and frustration" (p. 22). He recognizes that a major purpose of planning is often to generate change, and change is a threatening, political process. Dunn suggests ways to help people understand the need and directions for change, for instance, by writing scenarios for alternative futures.

The next chapter applies ideas from the field of organizational development to planned change in higher education. Felice Billups writes about how to develop a positive climate for planning—one in which multiple groups and individuals gain a sense of community and institutional self-awareness. She emphasizes that implementation should be an on-going process that begins the moment planning starts. This "continuous implementation" approach provides tangible evidence of accomplishment as the process evolves. Once good ideas are unearthed, there is no reason to wait for a complete plan before implementing them. Small gains lift spirits and encourage involvement in the planning process. She recommends that planners should stay flexible and adaptable and remember that different constituencies view

planning differently at different times depending on their individual agendas and goals.

The budgeting process in integral to strategic planning. Budgets may constrain plans, and budget allocations should follow from plans. James Manifold's article, "What about budgeting?", describes roles and relationships between a trustee budget committee and an on-campus committee. The on-campus committee works on the details and engenders consensus before the plan is forwarded to the trustees. Manifold discusses the importance of educating new members to these committees about the institution's priorities and not taking anything for granted. Formal reviews (or "reality checks") are valuable at each step of the budgeting process to ensure that goals of the strategic plan are taken into account.

A common experience these days in higher education, not to mention business, is organizational restructuring and downsizing. The sanitized euphemism is "rightsizing." Kathleen Alvino's chapter spells out the key role of human resource management in this process. Rightsizing involves "determining a plan to place the right people in the right positions at the right rate of compensation" (p. 59). She recommends establishing best case, status quo, and worst case scenarios that can be used in organization redesign and budgeting in line with strategic goals. She outlines an eight stage process for devising a human resource plan: establish a planning group, develop a forecast, cost the plan, communicate the plan, obtain labor agreement, obtain legal review, and implement the plan.

The chapter on faculty and staff benefits by Robert Wilson contrasts the golden age of benefits with today's hard times and the need for tough decisions. He describes the value of a benefits review program that keeps in mind the difference between entitlement benefits and insurance benefits. His recommendations include identifying plan features, funding costs, and options and listening carefully to faculty and staff concerns.

Deborah Teeter and Gregory Lozier integrate principles of total quality management with strategic planning. They offer some standard definitions of quality from experts such as Juran, Crosby, and Deming. The chapter authors explore the foundations of TQM for higher education, including creating a vision, focusing on the customer, improving the process continuously using systematic analysis. They highlight the importance of viewing the institution as a system—one that is constantly learning and developing. Moreover, they demonstrate the alignment of TQM and strategic planning in terms of focus on mission, process, information, and group dynamics. They even define "Hoshin Planning" as a constant focus on targets that are urgent and flow from a five-year plan.

Scott Hughes's concluding chapter, "Keeping the plan alive," underscores the notion that the strategic plan should be used to forge a consensus on the future. Plan implementation should translate strategies into actions, actions into results, results into assessments, and assessments into new strategies. Thus, strategic planning becomes a continuous process that is integrally related to actions and accomplishments. Moreover, the human resource professional facilitates these translation processes.

This book is an excellent overview of contemporary human resource management processes applied to institutions of higher education. All the buzz words are covered—TQM, rightsizing, organizational learning—along with the basics of planning, budgeting, and outcome analysis. The focus is on how the human resource professional contributes to designing and facilitating organizational processes that work well. The processes are viewed as an integrated system that must reflect the needs of the organization and its multiple constituencies. Concepts are presented concisely and are easy to follow. Key phrases are highlighted in the text, and there are some excellent diagrams. Several chapters address problems and pitfalls and the need to be sensitive to the politics of the institution. My only qualm is that I would have liked more examples and a recognition of how these processes operate differently in different types of institutions.

The book provides cogent advice to human resource professionals as to how to gain a seat at the planning table. Human resource professionals are often left out of the loop, viewed by university presidents and other top officials as managers of transactions (such as benefits, payroll, and job posting). This book shows how human resource professionals can educate campus leaders about the value of a human resource prospective to guiding and

facilitating strategic planning. As such, the book is a useful primer for university presidents, provosts, chief information officers, and other campus officials. Human resource professionals should consider giving the book to them as well as to their human resource staff. Also, the book should be useful to newcomers to university administration, especially faculty who take positions as department chairs, deans, and associate provosts.

Manuel London is Professor and Director of the Center for Human Resource Management in the Harriman School for Management and Policy at SUNY-Stony Brook, Stony Brook, New York. He was Deputy to Stony Brook's president from 1992 to 1995.

The Urban Campus

***The Urban Campus: Educating the New Majority for the New Century*, by Peggy Gordon Elliott. Phoenix, AZ: American Council on Education/Oryx Press, 1994, xvii + 162 pp. $29.95.**

Reviewed by Douglas L. Robertson

In recent years, I have conducted research and written about urban institutions of higher education and urban postsecondary systems (e.g., 1991a, 1991b, 1992), but perhaps even more importantly regarding my understanding of urban colleges and universities, for the last twenty years, I have worked in them. Both formal scholarship and lived, daily experience have taught me to hear who knows what they are talking about—and who does not—when it comes to urban higher education. Clearly, to my ear, Peggy Gordon Elliott knows what she is talking about. Having shared this assessment, however, I must admit that I found Dr. Elliott's book, *The Urban Campus*, disappointing.

Dr. Elliott has led a distinguished career in urban higher education, which has included holding national leadership positions, such as Chairperson of the Coalition for Urban Higher Education and the American Association of State Colleges and Universities' Urban Affairs Committee and Vice-Chairperson of the American Association of Urban Universities. Currently, Dr. Elliott is president of one of the country's largest urban campuses, the University of Akron. Immediately preceding this position, she was chancellor at Indiana University's Northwest campus in Gary, Indiana.

Dr. Elliott's book, *The Urban Campus*, contains seven chapters, as well as a Preface and an Epilogue. The topics covered include a brief history of the development of urban institutions, their general definition, their students, their faculty, their burdens due to misperceptions, their urban partnerships, and their past and future roles in equipping American society and its citizenry for the emerging 21st century.

I think that Dr. Elliott's book has some strengths. For instance, I believe that it usefully highlights the key feature of distinctly urban institutions of higher education—i.e., their active interrelationship with the local metropolitan region. Furthermore, I commend the sections of her book in which she addresses problems that she must surely face frequently as an urban university president, problems that she knows well from her own experience rather than from her scholarship—e.g., invalid funding formulas, anachronistic accreditation standards, and traditional institutions' territoriality. Often, the concrete case seems to interest Dr. Elliott more than the conceptual category or proposition that it is supposed to illustrate, and I think that her book provides some service by congregating a large array of individual stories dealing with some aspect of urban higher education—e.g., regarding its students, faculty, partnerships, and so forth.

However, although her book makes some contributions to the topic, by and large, I think that it suffers from what appears to be a lack of conceptual and scholarly care by the author and by the publisher's editorial staff. In her acknowledgments, Dr. Elliott admitted that sometimes she "doubted that it was possible to operate a campus and write a book simultaneously" (p. xvi). If she wanted the book to be first-rate, perhaps she was right.

Almost immediately, the book's disturbing conceptual and scholarly casualness confronts the reader in the Preface. By the end of Chapter 1, one realizes that what one is about to experience is probably not going to be a thoughtful, well-researched, carefully

constructed conceptual essay about these critical, new, urban institutions. Nor is it going to be a well-designed, meticulous research monograph that advances basic knowledge about urban institutions. Personally, I struggled for a frame.

For example, regarding the book's conceptual deficiencies, the term "New Majority" appears in the subtitle of the book; it is introduced almost immediately in the Preface (page 2); it is in a chapter title (Chapter 3); it is always capitalized for its apparent significance; and according to the index, it appears on no less than 29 of the 145 textual pages (about one page in five). Yet, even given the foundational importance of this concept to the discussion, it is never defined. Sometimes, it refers to all students at urban institutions. Other times, it means minorities, women, and adult students, regardless of whether or not they are attending urban institutions. In a least one case, it appears to be defined simply as minority students. Ultimately, it means nothing. Furthermore, the fact that this concept which is so central to Dr. Elliott's discussion is rendered meaningless by its indiscriminate use either does not bother Dr. Elliott or she is not aware of it. I wondered what the Oryx editor's role was in developing this manuscript? Normally, at distinguished presses, the basic responsibilities of the editorial staff include flagging this kind of fundamental conceptual problem.

The low scholarly standard that the book exhibits is illustrated by a practice in Chapter 1 that would be challenged in the term paper of a first-quarter freshman. At the end of the first chapter, Dr. Elliott informs us that many of the thoughts that we have been reading—which have been identified as Dr. Elliott's because they have not been designated otherwise in the text—are actually the ideas of Henry Cisneros from a speech that he gave in 1991, and, with his permission, are "used in their entirety" (p. 17). What does this mean? No quotation marks appear with a reference to Cisneros. Earlier in the Preface's acknowledgments, Dr. Elliott had thanked Secretary Cisneros for allowing her "the use of large portions of his 1991 speech...some of it verbatim, as the foundation for chapter 1" (p. xvi). Verbatim! Where are the quotation marks and references? What is Dr. Elliott's, and what is Secretary Cisneros's? This lapse in citation convention immediately undermines the reader's confidence in the scholarship of the rest of the book. What other fundamental scholarly practices have been relaxed? Again, Dr. Elliott seems to be either unresponsive or blind to the problem that a reader might have with her procedure. And again, we have to wonder about the role that Oryx's editorial staff played here. After all, this book appears in the American Council on Education's Series on Higher Education, and one would expect that every reasonable effort would be made to turn out the finest possible manuscript. Certainly, preventing this kind of citation blunder from ever reaching the press qualifies as a reasonable expectation that readers can have for the editorial staff in a series of this intended stature.

Earlier, I had mentioned that I had struggled for a frame for this book. It is not a conceptual essay that further develops our frameworks and vocabulary for urban higher education. It is not a research monograph that adds in any significant way to the information base about urban higher education. What is it? I think that it is an enthusiastic advocacy for urban higher education. The Greeks would call it a paean, I suppose. As a song of praise and joy about urban higher education, I think that it perhaps has some value.

Who should read this book? I recommend this book to anyone who knows little about the general endeavor of urban higher education nor the practice of formal scholarship and who wants to feel generally the passion and experience of practitioners of urban higher education—their commitment to their work; their sense of mission for serving individual students and the society in general; their long suffering patience with abusive bias against them, their students, and their institutions; and their deep-seated belief that they are doing (if truth be known) the most important work in American higher education today.

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Douglas L. Robertson is Associate Professor and Coordinator of the Postsecondary, Adult, and Continuing Education Graduate Programs at Portland State University, Portland, Oregon.

Recruiting Good College Faculty

***Recruiting Good College Faculty: Practical Advice for a Successful Search*, by Baron Perlman and Lee I. McCann. Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing Company, Inc., 1996, vi + 208pp**

Reviewed by Dr. Michael H. Parsons

In the most recent American Association of Community Colleges convention, Dr. David Pierce, president, indicated that by the year 2005, fifty percent of the faculty employed in community colleges in 1996 are likely to be retired. Many faculty entered higher education in the early to middle 60s, have 30 years of service, and will soon be retiring.

The work of Perlman and McCann is both timely and useful. The authors provide a paradigm for recruiting good college faculty. They have organized the book in a particularly creative way. Readers are encouraged to "take from the book that which is relevant and useful to [them]." The authors provide an educational context for recruiting, critical incidents in good teaching and scholarships, and they describe the search process. Overall, the book is a useful addition to the literature of higher education.

Some specific areas are worthy of analysis. It is interesting to note that they have included a chapter on ethical guidelines for recruiting. Currently, we are in a buyers' market; soon it will be a sellers' market. Ethics are important in both instances. I would suggest, however, that readers get the 1995, not the 1990, edition of the AAUP Redbook. It provides a more up-to-date context.

Another important segment is their assessment of the unique nature of each college environment. I would only recommend that readers go beyond their very limited discussion of the organizational culture of the institution. This is perhaps the most important variable in configuring the nature and expectations of any faculty position.

In their chapter on recognizing good teaching, they provide a number of useful tools. However, two areas need greater attention. For the past 5 years, classroom-based assessment has become an essential skill needed by all faculty in higher education. No mention is made of the pioneering work done by Thomas Angelo and Patricia Cross or of those who have followed their path.

Also, the authors provide some insight into the evaluation process. I would recommend that readers go beyond what is provided and look at either the IDEA System available from Kansas State University or the Student Information Report (SIR) available from Educational Testing Service.

Their chapter on the teaching portfolio is of high quality. Any institution seeking new faculty should pay particular attention to this tool. In the chapter on sources of candidates they provide a limited source of applicants. Attention needs to be paid to the business and industry environment, the military, and private agencies. A number of colleges report a high degree of success with this strategy of horizontal recruitment.

In the review of the process of identifying finalists, they make a comment that should be accepted with great care: "To our knowledge, most academic units do not do extensive checking of credentials beyond official transcripts" (pp. 152-153). The rapid rate of change currently facing all of higher education indicates that this is a dangerous approach to take. Chairs of search committees must work very closely with human resource development offices to ensure that all references are checked. Hiring a faculty member into a tenure track position amounts to over a million dollar investment. We cannot afford to make mistakes.

A unique and very positive aspect of their work is the concluding chapter that provides excellent strategies for retaining the faculty member, once hired. The emphasis they place

on mentoring a new member of the organization's culture is essential if the time and effort invested is to pay off. Members of college staffs that are facing multiple hires over the next several years will be well advised to read *Recruiting Good College Faculty.*

Dr Michael H. Parsons is Dean of Instruction at Hagerstown Junior College, Hagerstown, Maryland.

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By David W. Van Cleaf

Mentoring: A Two-Tier Faculty Induction Program

Inducting new faculty into the profession is a difficult and challenging task. Most new faculty express concerns about "social isolation and intellectual understimulation" (Boyce, 1992a, p. 52). In some settings this isolation leads to a social Darwinism phenomenon characterized by a survival of the fittest mentality (Boyce, 1992b; Schoenfeld & Magnan, 1994). Well intentioned unit heads and peers tend to avoid contact with new faculty because they want to provide sufficient time for job-related responsibilities like course preparation. At a time when new faculty should be developing a sense of their institution's culture, they are left alone.

AN INCREASING NUMBER of colleges and universities are recognizing the need to improve the process by which they induct new faculty into their institutions, and many are implementing mentoring programs. At a minimal level a mentoring program can consist of an informal association between an experienced faculty member and a new faculty protege. More complex mentoring arrangements might include assigning the protege to a series of mentors, including a teaching mentor, a scholarship mentor, and a service mentor.

Schoenfeld and Magnan (1994) stated that any type of mentoring format is likely to be more productive than no mentoring program. However, Boyce (1992b) reported that most mentoring programs are organized poorly. Mentoring pairs forget to meet regularly.

In 1992, Washburn University created a faculty development program. Washburn is a Comprehensive Masters I institution with a primary emphasis on undergraduate, urban education. The faculty is comprised of 229 full-time faculty members and twenty-two part-time faculty members. Most of our students are classified as commuters, and the mean age of the student population is 28.

During the first year of Washburn's faculty development program, a mentoring program was created. New faculty members were paired with respected senior faculty from across the campus. Creating mentor pairs that crossed departmental boundaries reflected Boyce's (1992b) assertion that cross-departmental assignments can work better than assignments within departments. We wanted each new faculty member to develop an informal relationship with a respected member of the university faculty. We also wanted to provide new faculty with access to individuals from other units on our campus so new faculty members would have a contact person outside the department who could be available to talk about possibly sensitive personnel issues. Although we acknowledged the key role of unit heads in the professional development of new faculty, we recognized the need to supplement this relationship.

In addition to assigning mentor pairs, we scheduled two social events for new faculty members and mentors. The first, a brown bag lunch held in November, was an informal visit with the Vice President for Academic Affairs. The second, an afternoon tea, was an informal visit with the president. The sessions were designed to foster social interaction with peers and to provide an opportunity

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to hear about trends and issues affecting the university.

At the afternoon tea the new faculty were asked for their input regarding expanding the mentor program by adding junior mentors who were nearing promotion and tenure. One of the new faculty members suggested allowing former new faculty members to serve as junior mentors during their second year on campus. That suggestion resulted in adding the second tier to our mentoring program. In the second year of the program we began assigning two mentors to new faculty members, a senior mentor and a second year faculty member to serve as a junior mentor. [New faculty may elect not to participate, and new faculty who have had considerable experience at other universities are usually assigned only a senior mentor.]

On several occasions we paired weak second year faculty members with new faculty members we perceived as being strong. In these situations, we also assigned our most capable senior mentors to the new faculty.

Junior and senior mentors are encouraged to interact with new faculty in a variety of ways. Some visit one another's classes and critique each other's teaching. Mentors are encouraged to schedule coffee breaks together and meet occasionally for lunch. E-mail interaction has been one means of frequent contact. New faculty and their mentors also are encouraged to attend monthly faculty development workshops.

The two social events conducted during the first year have been expanded as well. Within the first few weeks of the first semester a wine and cheese party is scheduled. This serves as an opportunity for new faculty and their mentors to meet. An informal visit with the Vice President for Academic Affairs continues as one of the scheduled events each year. Two luncheons have been added. One lunch for new faculty and mentors features informal presentations about teaching by faculty who have won the university's teaching award. The second luncheon features informal presentations by faculty who have won the university's scholarship award.

There is no formal recognition for the mentors. Our mentors seem to participate because they have a personal commitment to the program and their own professional development.

Benefits

A limited study was conducted to determine the effectiveness of the mentoring program. The study spanned a three-year period. Questionnaires were sent to new faculty and junior mentors at the end of the academic year they participated as new faculty and as junior mentors. Senior mentors were surveyed at the end of the first year they served as senior mentors. Since there has been little turnover in senior mentors, the number of senior mentors sampled over the three year period is relatively small. There was only one new senior mentor participating during the third year of the study.

Using a five-point Likert scale, each participant was asked to indicate the degree to which the mentoring program contributed to his or her professional development by responding to the following statement, "Please indicate the degree to which you think the mentoring program helped *your* professional development." The scale ranged from "Of no help" (a value of 1) to "Very helpful" (a value of 5). During the three-year period 25 new faculty responded, 24 junior mentors responded, and 15 senior mentors responded.

The new faculty had the highest mean score (X=3.68). The mean score of junior mentors was lower (X=3.33), and the mean score of the senior mentors was the lowest (X=2.33). In terms of the descriptors on the Likert scale, over the three year period new faculty indicated that the mentoring program was fairly helpful in their professional development. The junior mentors' mean score indicates that they considered the program helpful, too. Senior mentors felt that the mentoring program was somewhat less helpful, which is understandable because of their extensive prior experiences and established professional competencies.

Over the three year period, the mean scores of each group of new faculty and junior mentors increased. The mean score for new faculty in year one was 3.0, for year two was 3.89, and increased to 4.12 in year three. The same trend was present in the mean scores of the junior mentors. The year one mean score was 2.83, the year two mean score was 2.9, and the year three mean score was 4.63. Interestingly, in the third year of the study the mean score of the junior mentors was higher than the mean score of the new fac-

ulty. The increases in the mean scores of both groups suggest that minor changes in the mentoring program, or changes in the climate at the university, improved the perceived usefulness of the mentoring program.

The mentoring program has been beneficial for new faculty and junior mentors alike. New faculty have opportunities to interact with several other individuals on campus, thus reducing the isolation experienced by many new faculty. New faculty also attend monthly faculty development workshops on a frequent basis, perhaps because of the encouragement of the junior and senior mentors.

Second-year faculty benefit, too. Serving as junior mentors during their second year on campus extends the induction process. As first-year faculty they had contact with two people, a junior mentor and a senior mentor. As junior mentors they have contact with two more individuals, a new faculty member and the new faculty member's senior mentor. Thus, in addition to contacts in their own units, they have formed relationships with four individuals in other departments. Second-year faculty also remain active in the faculty development program because they are responsible for the induction of someone else.

Anecdotal information supports the two-tier induction program. One new faculty member compared our program to a formal program at her previous institution. She indicated that the informal nature of our program provided friendlier interactions than she experienced in the highly structured program at her previous institution.

In addition to providing new faculty and second year faculty with a number of contacts across campus, the mentor program encourages participants to participate in the faculty development program. Participation in monthly faculty development workshops has increased each year. Some of the increase is due to the mentoring program. Additionally, participants in the mentoring program are more likely to schedule the director of the faculty development program to conduct mid-semester evaluations. These evaluations are discussed at a follow-up conference.

Because the mentoring program is relatively new, we have not been able to determine possible effects on tenure and promotion decisions. However, at this point the conscientious participants appear to be on track for tenure and promotion.

The mentoring program provides an additional benefit for the university. We use it as a part of our recruitment efforts. Individuals accepting positions indicate that the mentoring program is one of the benefits offered by the university that contributed to their decision to join our faculty.

Conclusion

Boyce (1992a) stated, "As we usually see it practiced, mentoring new faculty is surprisingly ineffective without some kind of program..." (p. 55). Luna and Cullen (1995) reported that mentoring is a means of empowering faculty and thereby improving the quality of the faculty. Washburn's two-tier mentoring program is an informal and inexpensive program that is contributing to the successful induction of new faculty over a two year period.

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David W. Van Cleaf, Ph.D., is Professor and Chair, Department of Education, Washburn University, Topeka, Kansas. He helped create the university's faculty development program.

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By Damon A. Revelas & Taher A. Razik

Evaluation in Higher Education: A Process Approach

Determining the effectiveness of an educational institution's programs and personnel is one of the major tasks faced by educational leaders. In this article, the authors contend that while evaluation in education is a complex process, a stakeholder in evaluation must study the processes of evaluation in a systemic manner and be aware of certain tactical strategies for effective evaluation.

EVALUATION IS A critical, necessary dimension of educational institutions. In broad terms, educational evaluation can be thought of as a deliberate and desirable monitoring and adjustment process that professors and administrators engage in for the sake of assuring or improving educational process. Evaluation reveals how well programs are working and provides insight into how they can be improved.

Generally, evaluation activities that are sensibly conceived and competently carried out can only add to the quality and viability of education, its curricula, personnel, facilities, and institutional support systems. Conversely, the inability or unwillingness to undertake evaluation or conduct evaluation exercises inevitably detracts from educational quality. Effective self-managing organizations engage in data collection and create feedback-rich environments.

To a large extent educational evaluation today has evolved into a distinct professional field, represented by a variety of specialists and experts. For example, it is common to find state and district education offices, particularly in and around large educational institutions, as well as offices within education associations and funding agencies, that are specifically organized to conduct evaluation functions. Typically, these offices are staffed by people who specialized as evaluators, analysts, psychometricians, planners, economists or accreditation experts. Even with this trend towards professionalism, however, it should be noted that the field of evaluation in education is still growing and changing and that evaluation methodologies are based more upon enlightened practice than upon theory. Currently a great deal of debate centers on methodology, values and uses of evaluation processes. The use of qualitative methods has become increasingly effective as a means of lending flesh and bones to the skeletal process presented by empirical data alone.

Much of the work that falls into the category of educational evaluation remains in the hands of educational administrators, instructors and other personnel who, for the most part, are non-specialists. This is particularly true in smaller institutions of education. This approach helps to keep evaluation grounded to educational realities at the practitioners' level where instructional delivery occurs. However, the middle and upper echelons of educational systems often escape evaluation entirely. This may and often does contribute to stagnation. The limited amount of evaluation of administrators is reflected in educational administration literature. As an example, Boyan (1988) noted that in the most recent edition of the *Handbook of Research on Educational Administration* there is no

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discussion of evaluation of administrators. To the research community this may suggest that researchers and practitioners may still be attempting to define the effective educational administrator in light of the complex tasks they perform in educational organizations. Unless a process, or task is clearly defined, it is not possible to establish validity and/or reliability of the evaluation process. Equally, as seen in non educational organizations, evaluation by a superior of a subordinate may be problematic. Other types of personnel evaluation mechanisms, for example, peer evaluation and self evaluation may be more advantageous. In total, all evaluation may need to become more systemic.

The process of evaluation can be creatively employed to focus on numerous practical problems and issues, both simple and complex, that crop up in educational settings. It can focus on different institutional functions, including instruction, curriculum change, testing, facilities improvement, program funding, planning and community relations. Evaluation can occur formatively as an ongoing process, or it can be interposed summativley as a periodic or special event. In addition, it may involve almost any combination of subjects and participants, including students, instructors, administrators, parents, community groups and government agencies.

While recognizing that educational evaluation is very individualistic and uniquely problem-solving oriented, it is also important to note within the field the existence of some basic divisions and conflicts. Evaluation in education is characterized by the coexistence of different philosophical and theoretical perspectives. In this regard, there are many models and methodologies that guide evaluation practices. These different evaluation perspectives and approaches (quantitative vs. qualitative methods, behavioral vs. humanistic) tend to provide a basis for both renewal and greater sophistication. However, the various evaluation models available makes it difficult for the practitioner to absorb and effectively utilize competing models. There are differences related to professional and political issues: conflicts, for example, over who control evaluation and over who decides the purposes and priorities for evaluation.

Aspects of Educational Evaluation

Definition Out of Diversity

As suggested already, educational evaluation is individualistic, more an applied art than a science. Evaluation approaches and designs are influenced by a variety of theories and models; evaluation practices can vary to suit different purposes (Shadish, Cook, & Leviton, 1991). In this regard, educational evaluation may be seen as lacking any one overriding theory or "best" method. There is a growing consensus that the existence of multiple evaluation approaches and methods presents no great problem for evaluation specialists and professionals. Rather, most problems seem to arise only when evaluation models are used inconclusively or inappropriately for purposes that are inconsistent with their inherent properties (Glasman & Nevo, 1988; Wolf, 1984).

Furthermore, the apparent diversity within the field of educational evaluation need not prevent the recognition of several major principles and conceptual features that give shape to the field as a whole. Despite its essential diversity, educational evaluation does have certain patterns associated with its usual functions and purposes. This awareness of commonalities, in fact, has stimulated recent attempts to develop integrated theoretical frameworks for the field (Shadish, Cook, & Leviton, 1991). In a similar vein, as we survey the wider field we will note that many of the better definitions of educational evaluation have been constructed around a few major viewpoints and common notions.

By and large, formal definitions of educational evaluation tend to emphasize three prevalent viewpoints. Some definitions emphasize a mode of evaluation that is primarily concerned with the achievement of specified norms or goals (e.g., Tyler, 1970). Other definitions emphasize a type of evaluation that is qualitative, open-ended or goal-free, and primarily dedicated to insightful descriptions and judgments of educational realities (e.g., Scriven, 1980a; Patton, 1984; Guba & Lincoln, 1989). There are also definitions that emphasize the pragmatic aspects of the evaluation process: information gathering, followed by analysis and judgmental

assessment, followed by decisionmaking. The pragmatic, process-based definitions of educational evaluation appear to be the most serviceable to administrators. These methods also seem to reflect the current thinking in the field.

Examples of process-based definitions can be seen in the writings of Cronbach (1982), Stufflebeam (1990), and Beeby (cited in Wolf, 1984). Their definitions all highlight two process elements: the collection and use of information and the purpose of making decisions and taking actions related to educational matters.

For instance, Beeby's definition of evaluation (in Wolf, 1984, p. 3) states that evaluation is a "systematic collection and interpretation of evidence leading to a judgment of value with a view to action." This definition is particularly nonrestrictive as it does not limit the evaluation process to any prescribed target or methodological approach. Yet, it does serve to emphasize the essential, purposeful connections between information, evaluation (e.g. judgement) and action. In other words, evaluation forms the rational center of a wider educational management process.

Some definitions of evaluation tend to get bogged down in attempts to establish hard semantic distinctions between kindred terms, for example, "testing" vs. "measurement," or "appraisal" vs. "assessment" vs. "evaluation" (Berk, 1981; Mehrens, 1973). Such terms often carry overlapping meanings and people tend to use the terms almost interchangeably in common parlance. Even experts use the terms differently, depending on the evaluation situation and focus. Global definitions of evaluation that dwell on such semantic distinctions actually do very little in the way of promoting a better or more realistic understanding of evaluation. An instructor or administrator, however, does need to understand the variety of philosophical definitions of evaluation. This allows the practitioners to use evaluation processes for the right reason at the right time.

Evaluation Modes and Purposes

Educational evaluation is generally understood to fall into two main categories: summative evaluation and formative evaluation. When most administrators and instructors ponder evaluation, they typically are thinking about summative evaluation; evaluation that occurs at (or near) some identifiable end-point of a project, program or course. For example, comprehensive final exams and course grades for students, annual performance and merit reviews for instructors and program assessments all represent different forms of summative evaluation applied to the educational process.

Summative evaluation, as the term implies, is usually conducted with the intent of making summary judgments about the overall worth of educational endeavors, activities and programs. Data collection and analysis usually aims at measuring outcomes and achievement levels with reference to formally stated or well understood goals and standards. The value judgements made via this process become the formal bases for making official decisions. Examples of this are decisions regarding the continuation or noncontinuation of programs, educational activities, instructor assignments, student placement and grade promotion. Decisions can also stem from comparative value judgements, replacing old curricula with new curricula based on the results of pilot trials and multi-faceted comparisons (Scriven, 1980a & 1980b).

In contrast, the term formative evaluation refers to evaluation that occurs while processes or products are being designed. Formative evaluation is principally used to foster improvement, and it can be thought of as ongoing evaluation that accompanies some larger development effort or change process.

Formative evaluation is highly desirable, for example, when implementing new programs or instructional delivery systems. Through formative measures, instructors and administrators can monitor the progress of implementation efforts. These measures give practitioners the means to detect and solve problems before they become unwieldy. Formative evaluation methods are also very useful in conjunction with programs aimed at staff development and organizational change. For obvious reasons, formative evaluation techniques also nurture effective instruction and educational testing, the normal concerns related to student development.

In addition to summative and formative evaluation, Tuckman (1985) suggests a third

mode of evaluation: ex post facto evaluation. These "after the fact" review processes study events and data in a longitudinal manner in order to determine the factors that contributed to educational success or failure. This evaluation usually is done to obtain information and review assessments needed for educational planning, to note outcomes, trends and problem factors. However, summative and formative modes of evaluation still command the most attention among evaluation researchers and educational practitioners.

Several authors have commented on some of the essential distinctions and relationships between the summative and formative evaluation functions. Glasman and Nevo (1988) reinforced the point that summative evaluation emphasizes accountability in education, whereas formative evaluation emphasizes improvement. Walberg and Haertel (1990) contended that summative evaluations are conducted with greater formality, mainly to serve the needs of external audiences. Formative evaluations tend to be informal, limited and primarily intended for internal use by participants. Additionally, Lewy (1990) noted that summative evaluations perceived as having more methodological rigor than formative evaluation.

However, it is possible to have methodological integrity at both levels and, as often as not, summative and formative evaluation functions can be regarded as complementary. Often, the same evaluation study can be viewed by one client as summative and by another client as formative (Borich, 1974; Lewy, 1990; Scriven, 1980b). Much depends on when and where the mechanisms are utilized and by whom. Indeed, many experts suggest that evaluation designs ought to include related plans for both summative and formative evaluation (e.g., Edwards, Guttentag & Snapper, 1975; Mark & Cook, 1984; Lewy, 1990).

It is also possible to identify other end-functions or purposes of educational evaluation that occur as formative or summative activities are used. These parallel purposes for evaluation reveal, more or less, the basic reasons for conducting evaluations in the first place. For example, Glasman and Nevo (1988) mention that educational evaluation may be undertaken for sociopolitical and psychological purposes, such as gaining public support and professional commitments. Evaluation may also be carried out for authoritative purposes, such as demonstrating administrative control and authority over educational systems and processes.

From the perspective of educational administrators, it appears that evaluation, whether formative or summative in nature, can be carried out for motivational purposes, on the one hand, and for corrective purposes on the other hand. This general viewpoint and combination of purposes is illustrated in Table 1.

Evaluation Targets and Processes

As suggested earlier, educational evaluation may focus on a variety of targets or objects of interest. In general, evaluation targets tend to fall into five main categories or areas of visible concern.

1. Evaluations of learning. Measurements, assessments, and inquiries regarding student learning gains, learning rates and performance.
2. *Evaluations of instruction.* Measurements, assessments, and appraisals of instructional quality, competence and

TABLE 1
Evaluation Modes, Functions and Purposes

Modes	Functions and Purposes	
	Motivational	Corrective
Formative Functions	• Improve individual performance • Improve efficiency • Determine future goals	• Modify poor performance • Determine operative problems in a new program
Summative Functions	• Reward outstanding performance • Determine degree of goal achievement • Granting tenure	• Dismiss deficiencies in a program • Determine deficiencies in a program • Establish institutional needs and priorities

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success in relation to instructional standards, goals and norms.

3. *Evaluations of courses.* Evaluations of course design and content, of instructional support and testing and remediation systems.
4. *Evaluation of programs.* Evaluations of program curricula and course combinations; evaluation of program design, efficiency and effectiveness, including assessments of administration, institutional fit, social impact and cost benefits.
5. *Evaluations of institutions and wider education systems.* Evaluations of multiprogram or multisite education systems including institutional and sectoral evaluations of national (or even international) education systems.

These target categories are interlinked, and, when taken together, they represent an integrated continuum selection of specific evaluation targets. Evaluation of targets in any one category of primary concern can easily lead to consideration of targets in other categories. Evaluations in learning (Target Level 1), for example, are not simply restricted to a consideration of student behaviors or test scores; learning evaluations can also include related assessments of instruction and course content. Similarly, course evaluations (at Target Level 3) can include assessments of instructional methods and materials (Target Level 2) in one direction, and of program design and institutional support (at Target Levels 4 and 5) in the other direction.

In practice, educational evaluation may focus on as few or as many targets as the specific evaluation situation dictates and allows. In this regard, evaluation becomes situational, as targets of any given evaluation will depend on the immediate concerns of the evaluators, participants and audiences involved in the process and the commitment of resources and time.

It is also true that evaluation processes permit great flexibility with regard to the choice of procedures, methods and participants However, as previously indicated, there do appear to be commonalities that help define the general evaluation process. Glasman and Nevo (1988) explain that all evaluation processes are characterized by three essential activities: (1) focus on a particular evaluation problem; (2) collection and analysis of empirical data; and (3) communication of findings and recommendations to evaluation audiences. Also, in keeping with the administrative, process-based definitions of evaluation offered by Popham (1988) and Wolf (1984), two other activities should be added to the general process description: (4) interaction between evaluators and people being evaluated; and (5) decisions and actions resulting from evaluation. Finally, it is important to conclude with an overall (6) assessments of the entire evaluation project and its results.

The following outline reflects the logical sequence of the core processes of educational evaluation from the viewpoint of educational administrators and leaders.

Sequence of Evaluation Processes

1. Problem Setting
   - A. Determine the situation to be evaluated.
   - B. Determine the objects and people involved in the situation of interest.
   - C. Determine the purpose(s) of the evaluation.
2. Problem Specification
   - A. Determine relevant elements for examination in the evaluation problem.
   - B. Select appropriate evaluation mode and method(s) of inquiry.
   - C. Select participants and sample groups; identify likely data sources, informants, etc.
3. Data Collection and Analysis
4. Communication of Findings and Recommendations
5. Decisionmaking
6. Action Derived from Decisionmaking
7. Assessment of the evaluation
   - A. In relation to the initial purpose.
   - B. In relation to the process used.
   - C. In relation to the expected results

Throughout these evaluation stages, interaction among participants, evaluators, evaluation subjects and evaluation audiences is necessary and especially advantageous. Interaction can occur at any stage of the evaluation process, but it is especially beneficial in the problem setting, communication and

evaluation review stages (Holloway, 1988; Glasman & Nevo, 1988; Cronbach, 1982).

As a final point, the last stage of the prototype evaluation process, overall assessment, has an impact apart from the evaluation reviewed. Assessments of any given evaluation ought to serve a corrective function. Problems and inadequacies noticed in the evaluation process are addressed to improve future evaluation efforts. Unless problems encountered in evaluation projects are thoroughly aired and examined, improvements in the process probably will not occur. Without corrective mechanisms in place, participants may come to regard evaluations as frustrating exercises devoid of worth.

The Future of Educational Evaluation

Predicting the future of educational evaluation is as risky as predicting the future of the educational effort in general. However, some issues seem to be reasonably clear.

As long as education remains a human process, it will remain imperfect and open to improvement. As long as education remains a broad public concern, it will continue to be a subject of scrutiny from multiple constituencies. As long as education remains a complex system, it will need to consider evaluation and feedback as legitimate components of that system.

There has been an increasing move toward assessment of the performance of educational institutions for the past two decades. This has taken clear form in the student outcomes assessment movement in educational institutions (Gray, 1989; Banta, 1988). Developed in part as an extension of management by objectives, outcomes assessment has drawn widespread public and professional attention. In one form or another, its emphasis on defining prospective outcomes and then looking closely at the results can be expected to figure strongly in the future design of the overall educational enterprise. Equally importantly, we must realize that evaluation mechanisms to date are highly systematic. They lack the critical systemic emphasis and action orientation that ties evaluation to its other subsystems.

Systemic changes in evaluation recognizes the interrelationships and interdependencies among the parts of the educational system, with the consequence that desired changes in one part of the system are accompanied by changes in other parts that are necessary to support those desired changes (Jenlink, Reigeluth, Carr & Nelson, 1996). Systemic change focuses less on the end goals and more on the process of reaching the end goals in a cultural context (Carr, 1996).

Evaluation systems will need to be rethought, for example, as the era of the knowledge worker ensues (Drucker, 1993), or as society becomes more global and as we recognize the interdependence of seemingly disconnected systems and subsystems. The era of Postpositivistic thought may be dying or dead.

Postpositivistic thought has two basic conceptual premises: 1) underdetermination, and; 2) incommensurability. Miller & Fredericks (1991) define underdetermination as "the view that what theory is true is underdetermined by the total evidence available; that is, a number of theories can equally account for the same finite body of evidence" (p. 3). The above authors also define incommensurability, following Kuhn (1970): "If two paradigms are rivals, they are incommensurable—statements from one paradigm are not fully translatable into terms appropriate to the other (for they "carve up" reality differently, so that even if they use the same words, the words have different meanings in different contexts)" (p. 3). As can be seen, relevance for this type of inquiry towards useful evaluation is questionable at best. This points to the necessity for more usable evaluation orientations and processes for the future. To date, evaluation hasn't yet approached this crossroad.

Evaluation is, and will continue to be, pervasive in the field of education. At its best, evaluation serves to aid in the improvement of the overall enterprise (e.g., personnel performance, student and program outcomes and university and systemwide success). Even so, the benefits of evaluation must be considered in light of the corresponding limitations. As a general rule, evaluations do not yield generalizable results; they are time dependent in that most objects of the evaluation are not static; and, although they may be useful in the diagnosis of problems, they may not be helpful in elucidating appropriate solutions (Wolf, 1984). Additionally, both

evaluators and their clients must be sensitive to relevant ethical issues (e.g., informed participation) and be able to weigh and make use of evaluation results in arriving at educational judgments and decisions. In the future, evaluation of the educational system and its various components can be expected to continue to be a significant issue for all, professional educators and public alike.

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By Marcie Desrochers, Kirk Stone and Idee Winfield

Is Assessment Achieving Its Potential? A View from the Front-Line

Key faculty at a liberal arts college were surveyed about the assessment process. We found that key faculty want to conduct assessment more effectively, but believe they lack the tools and time to do an effective job. Responses to the questions vary systematically among the schools at the College, reflecting discipline-specific approaches to the problem of assessment and suggesting the merit of tailoring services to the needs of individual schools.

AGREEMENT ON HOW best to conduct assessment requires an understanding of how various stakeholders view the process of assessment. Only a few studies have used a survey approach to identify stakeholders' attitudes toward and utilization of assessment (e.g., Altschuld, Yoon, & Cullen, 1993; Jackson & Griggs, 1995; Keith & Myers, 1992), none of which address the process of student outcomes assessment. In this paper we report the findings from a study designed to examine how key faculty involved in assessment at the departmental level at the College of Charleston view the assessment process. In so doing, we begin to fill a gap in current knowledge about the process of student outcomes assessment in higher education.

The College of Charleston, in Charleston, South Carolina, is a moderately-sized institution (approximately 10,000 students and 350 faculty members). Assessment of the major began in 1988.[1] After six years of conducting assessment on campus, the College Assessment Committee decided the 1995-96 school year was a propitious time to evaluate our school's assessment activities. The College Assessment Committee was aware of a blind spot in what was known about assessment on our campus. No one had ever asked departmental chairs, or the faculty responsible for assessment in a department, how they regarded the assessment process. Yet these faculty are on the front-line—developing assessment procedures, conducting assessment, evaluating the findings, and changing their programs based on what they learn. To fill this gap, the College Assessment Committee surveyed those on the front-line about their perceptions of the usefulness of assessment, the techniques used, the resources needed, and the problems they have encountered. The goal of the study was to identify ways that the institution can help those on the front-line develop an effective process for assessing student outcomes in their major program of study.

Method

Participants represent 24 of the 25 departments at the College of Charleston (a

[1]Assessment of the major refers to academic programs leading to a baccalaureate degree. Academic departments that offer more than one major conduct a separate assessment for each major program.

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return rate of 96%). The College's departments are grouped into five schools. The number of departments responding and the number of departments in each school are as follows: The schools of Humanities and Social Sciences (8 respondents from 9 departments), Sciences and Mathematics (6 respondents from 6 departments), Arts (4 respondents from 4 departments), Business and Economics (3 respondents from 3 departments), and Education (3 respondents from 3 departments).

A 4-page, 13-item, confidential questionnaire was designed to collect information regarding: (a) participant demographics; (b) attitudes toward assessment; (c) assessment techniques used and their usefulness; (d) resources used and desired; and (e) difficulties encountered when conducting assessment.[2] The questionnaire was reviewed for content validity by three individuals knowledgeable about assessment procedures at the College.

A cover letter, questionnaire, and addressed return envelope were mailed to the 25 department chairs with a request to direct the questionnaire to the person most familiar with that department's assessment procedures. We followed up at four weeks and at seven weeks to ensure a high rate of response.

More than half (54%) of the respondents had worked on academic assessment for 4-5 years (mean = 5.21 years). In addition, 78% of the respondents served as chair of their department.

Results

Results from the questionnaire completed by the 24 faculty-stakeholders provide a wealth of useful information that can inform the assessment process at other institutions. In this section we provide the findings. In the following section we discuss the implications of the findings for the ongoing development of the process of assessing student outcomes.

View of Assessment

Assessment of the major began in 1988. At the time of the survey, departments had completed several years of the assessment process; they had developed a plan, conducted assessments, and used the findings to make changes. We began by asking key stakeholders their view of the purpose and usefulness of assessment. Faculty stakeholders have a positive and pragmatic view of assessment. All but one respondent reported that assessment of student outcomes is useful for improving academic programs, and most (62.5%) reported that assessment serves both departmental needs and external requirements.

There are some interesting but unexplained differences in the view of assessment among the five schools (Figure 1). Compared to the other schools, the stakeholders from the schools of Education, and Humanities and Social Sciences generally hold a more positive view of assessment. We cannot say whether this is due to the particular respondents or the nature of disciplines, but this pattern also appears in response to questions about changes resulting from assessment.

Use and Ranking of Assessment Techniques

Of the wide variety of techniques available for assessment of academic programs, three techniques were used by approximately 60% to 70% of the departments—a survey of recent graduates, exit interviews with graduating seniors, and knowledge-based exams (Table 1).

Respondents were also asked to rank the assessment techniques used in their departments (Table 2). Among *all* respondents[3], exit interviews, surveys of recent graduates, department-developed knowledge-based exams, and external evaluators were most frequently ranked in the top three for providing useful information.

There was substantial variation in the use of assessment techniques among the respondents' departments—as many as 18 departments and as few as 3 used any one of the techniques. The mean ranking for each assessment technique indicates that knowledge exams and student exit interviews were ranked highest among those who used the

[2]Contact the authors for a copy of the survey instrument.

[3]By creating the category "do not use technique" we were able to maintain the same sample size for each of the techniques and thus compare responses across the techniques.

TABLE 1: Percent Who Report Use of Assessment Techniques

Assessment Technique	All %	Arts %	Busi.& Econ. %	Educ. %	Human & Soc Sc. %	Science & Math. %
Survey of recent grads.	68.0	50.0	66.7	66.7	62.5	83.3
Survey of Alumni	50.0	25.0	33.3	66.7	25.0	100.0
Review of student papers	25.0	75.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	16.7
Syllabi review	33.0	25.0	0.0	33.3	25.0	66.7
Student portfolios	29.0	50.0	0.0	33.3	12.5	50.0
Student entrance interview	17.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	12.5	16.7
Student exit interview	62.0	75.0	33.3	66.7	62.5	66.7
Student poster presentation	8.0	0.0	0.0	33.3	0.0	16.7
Focus groups	17.0	0.0	66.7	0.0	12.5	16.7
Knowledge Exam	58.0	0.0	33.3	66.7	87.5	33.4
Department	29.0	0.0	0.0	66.7	50.0	16.7
National	29.0	0.0	33.3	66.7	37.5	16.7
Activity demonstrating competence	33.0	75.0	0.0	33.3	37.5	16.7
Juried presentation	12.0	75.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
External Evaluators	42.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	37.5	83.3
Other	12.0	0.0	0.0	33.3	25.0	0.0

technique (1=highest rank). A mean rank between 5.25 and 8.17, indicative of the least useful techniques, appears for five techniques: review of student papers, syllabi review, student entrance interview, juried presentation, and poster presentation.

Given disciplinary differences in substance and methodology, it is not surprising to see that the use of various assessment techniques varies among the schools (see Table 1). Departments in the School of Arts more frequently use activities demonstrating competence, juried presentations of work, and review of student papers. In the School of Business and Economics, there is greater use of focus groups, while departments in the School of Science and Mathematics more frequently use external evaluators.

TABLE 2: Ranking of Assessment Techniques

Assessment Technique	% of All Who Rank #1-3	Number of Depts. Use Technique	Mean Rank Reported by Users of the Technique
Survey of recent grads.	41.7	18	3.9
Survey of Alumni	37.5	16	3.5
Review of Student papers	12.5	8	5.3
Syllabi review	12.5	11	5.9
Student portfolios	16.7	8	3.9
Student entrance interview	8.3	8	6.4
Student exit interview	45.8	15	2.7
Student poster presentation	0.0	6	8.2
Focus groups	8.3	6	4.8
Knowledge Exam			
Department	41.7	11	1.7
National	25.0	9	3.0
Activity demonstrating competence	25.0	10	4.5
Juried presentation	16.7	7	6.7
External evaluators	41.7	13	3.3
Other	8.3	3	4.0

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Changes Resulting from Assessment

Changes in curriculum and courses were by far the most frequently reported changes resulting from assessment (Table 3). Sixty-two percent of all departments restructured their curriculum and revised specific courses, and 41.7% made changes in student advising.

We again find differences among the five schools with respect to using findings from assessment to make programmatic changes. Departments in the School of Science and Mathematics were less focused than departments in other schools on revising courses. Also, departments in Business and Economics did not restructure their curriculum to the same extent as departments in the other schools. Changes in student advising were more notable in the schools of Arts, Education, and Science and Mathematics than in Business and Economics or Humanities and Social Sciences.

Resources

The respondents were asked to rank five resources in terms of how useful they are for conducting assessment (Figure 2). Fifty-eight percent of respondents gave the highest ranking to informal discussion with colleagues in other departments/institutions. Twelve percent of respondents ranked "how-to" seminars highest, and another 12% ranked books on assessment as most useful.

Faculty-stakeholders also reported two clear preferences for the resources they *would use* if available (Table 4). Eighty-seven percent of respondents would like to see the assessment techniques used by other departments, and 83% would like referral to individuals in other departments who have experience with particular assessment techniques. In other words, they want models of what others have done. Approximately 50% to 60% of respondents would use "how-to" seminars, books, World Wide Web (WWW) sites or internet discussion groups, and experts/consultants.

[4]Detailed analysis of the responses to the questions about difficulties are available by directly contacting the authors.

Faculty preferences for resources differ among the five schools at the College. More respondents from the schools of Education, Humanities and Social Sciences, and Science and Mathematics would use "how-to" seminars, books, and WWW compared to other schools. In contrast, a larger percentage of respondents in the schools of Education, and Science and Mathematics would use experts/consultants and attend a conference on assessment, such as the South Carolina Higher Education Association conference.

Difficulties

We also asked respondents to rank (1 = most serious problem) a list of difficulties they may have experienced.[4] Between 46% and 54% of all respondents ranked lack of department consensus on the focus of assessment, and time to develop, conduct, and report assessment among the top three difficulties. Respondents who identified lack of knowledge of effective assessment techniques were in strongest agreement about the seriousness of the problem (a mean ranking of 3.07, which indicates the most serious difficulty).

Discussion and Implications

A process as complex as assessment becomes more understandable only as we carefully examine it from multiple vantage points. The research presented here adds to our understanding of this complex process by surveying a group of important stakeholders about their views of the assessment process.

Results from the questionnaire provided a wealth of useful information about assessment at our school. There are three important findings. First, most respondents reported that assessment is useful, both in terms of department needs and external requirements. Second, schools at the College differed in their responses to the questions. Third, respondents want information that will allow them to conduct assessment more effectively.

The data indicate that respondents have a pragmatic view of assessment. Most report that assessment serves both departmental needs and external requirements. In addition, all but one respondent reported that assessment of student outcomes is useful for improving academic programs. Respondents'

TABLE 3: Changes Made to Program Based on Assessment Results

Program Changes	All %	Arts %	Bus. & Econ. %	Educ. %	Human & SocSc. %	Science & Math. %
Revised courses	62.5	50.0	66.7	100.0	75.0	33.3
Curriculum restructuring	62.5	75.0	33.3	66.7	75.0	50.0
Search and hiring	4.2	25.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Library acquisitions	4.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	16.7
Equipment purchases	12.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	50.0
Advising of students	41.7	75.0	0.0	66.7	12.5	66.7
Other	8.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	12.5	16.7

views concerning assessment suggest that they want to help assessment live up to its potential. This should lead to a greater commitment to actively improving the process of assessment, which may draw other faculty into the process.

There are some notable variations among schools in their responses to the four dimensions of the assessment process. Given disciplinary differences in substance and methodology, it is not surprising to see that the use of various assessment techniques varies among the schools. Perhaps the most interesting finding is the variation across schools in the resources respondents would use to develop their assessment procedures. More puzzling are the differences among the schools with respect to respondents' views of the usefulness of assessment and how results of assessment were used to make programmatic changes. From a faculty perspective, if assessment is viewed as useful, it should translate into a willingness to make changes to courses and curriculum. Yet, it is also possible that the more strongly wedded individuals or disciplines are to a particular curriculum, the less useful they may view assessment. One question raised by our study is which drives which? Does the view of assessment shape the willingness to make curriculum changes, or does the willingness to make changes to curriculum shape the view of assessment?

Variations in responses among the schools at the College indicate that further development of the assessment process should attend to the different needs and concerns within departments and schools. More broadly, it suggests that assessment in higher education should not follow a "one-size fits all" model. The number of students, characteristics of the pedagogy, content, and methodology of a discipline will all affect the techniques used and resources required to implement an effective assessment.

TABLE 4: Percent of Respondents Who Would Use Resource if it Were Available

Resource	All %	Arts %	Bus. & Econ. %	Educ. %	Human & SocSc. %	Science & Math. %
"How-to" seminars	60	25.0	0.0	66.7	87.5	66.7
Books	60	25.0	33.3	66.7	75.0	66.7
WWW and internet.	48	0.0	33.3	66.7	50.0	83.3
Assessments by other depts.	87	100.0	66.7	100.0	87.5	83.3
Referral to others	83	75.0	100.0	100.0	87.5	66.7
Experts/consultants	64	50.0	33.3	100.0	50.0	83.3
Assessment Conference	32	25.0	0.0	66.7	12.5	50.0
Other	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

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Respondents want information that will allow them to conduct assessment more effectively. Most survey respondents indicated that they would use interdepartmental discussion and review of reports to learn about assessment techniques. This finding may stem from the fact that departments at a single institution share a great deal, despite studying vastly different subjects. They interact with the same student body, same parents and other family members, same faculty colleagues, same administration, same legislature, same public, and same Assessment Committee. The assessment plan that works for the History Department at the College of Charleston may be more similar to what works for the Psychology Department at the same school than to what works for history departments at other schools.

Furthermore, other methods of acquiring information about assessment (e.g., seminars, conferences, books, WWW sites and internet discussions) may be perceived as less desirable due to time constraints, expense, or lack of relevance to important assessment issues. Although the respondents in this survey reported resource preferences, caution should be taken when interpreting this result since respondents may never have used some of these methods.

Several limitations of this survey need to be considered. First, we would be surprised if the findings of this survey were the same at every other college and university. The particular characteristics of the College and its constituents (i.e., administration, student body, faculty), and the manner in which the process of assessment has unfolded here make generalizability problematic. The findings, however, highlight that the approach of assessing the process of assessment yields valuable knowledge and is one that can and should be undertaken at other institutions.

A second potential problem with these results is a concern that is present with survey data in general; do respondents' attitudes as noted by their responses to a questionnaire reflect their actual behavior? It is unknown, for instance, whether respondents used the techniques or the resources that they stated they used. Since the survey was conducted in the spirit of improving the "system" and the participants were informed as such, this potential threat may be minimal.

Because assessment is here to stay, it is important to develop effective approaches to communicate how to do assessment. This will enable assessment to live up to its potential. The results of this survey suggest that increasing discussion within an institution on the topic of assessment and sharing assessment reports among departments may be useful ways to proceed. One of the first steps taken by our institution's Assessment Committee, after reviewing the findings of this study, was to offer a faculty workshop on the nuts and bolts of using portfolios for assessment. Faculty from departments already using portfolios led a discussion and answered questions. Workshops help foster greater communication among departments and hopefully will provide information in an efficient and effective manner.

A study of the process of assessment at an institution can help those involved make informed decisions. Such feedback is essential at any institution eager to make the inevitable curricular and other changes that are needed. Given the many demands on their limited time, faculty and administrators can easily get so busy doing assessment that they do not stop to reflect on what they are doing or how it can be done better. A survey is an efficient way to collect information from key stakeholders in the process. Attention to the process helps assessment live up to its potential. Ultimately, of course, quality assessment is only a means to a much more important end—helping students to learn.

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Figure 1: Respondents' Ratings of the Usefulness of Assessment, By School

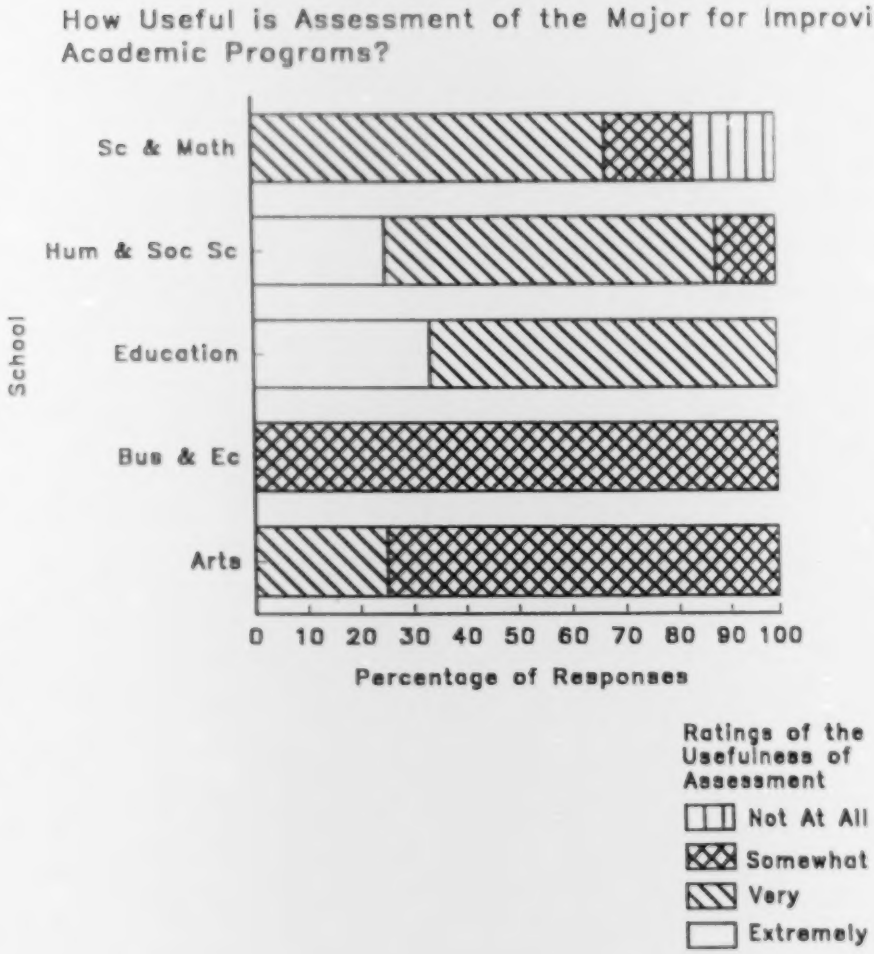
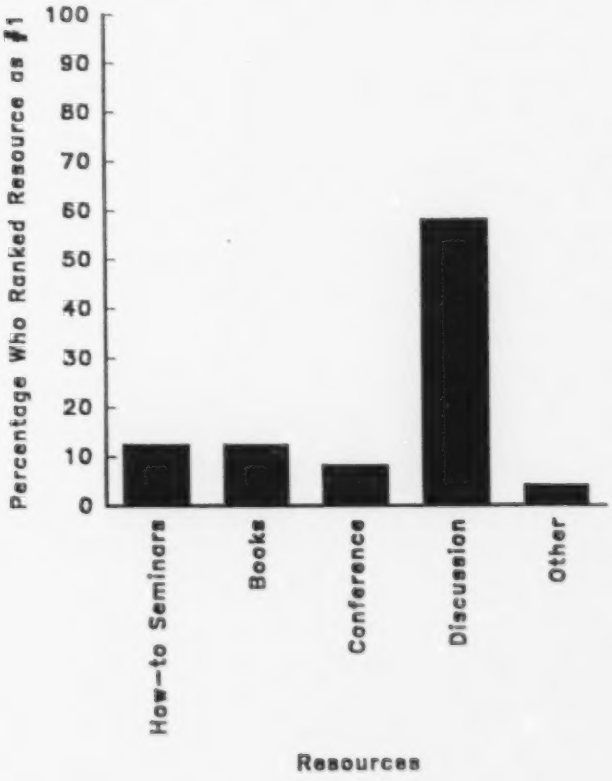


Figure 2: Percent of Respondents Who Rank Resource Most Useful

Rank order the following resources in terms of providing you with the most to least information concerning the assessment of the major.



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By Kenneth A. Thompson

Annotated Bibliography: How Feedback Affects Learning

Suggested readings and resources for the SPOD practitioner and others involved in improving college service to the community.

Bernard, R. M. & Naidu, S. (1992). Post-questioning, concept mapping and feedback: A distance education field experiment. *British Journal of Education Technology*, 23(1), 48-60.

These researchers conducted a study using an expermental design. Their subjects were nurses enrolled in a distance learning program (N=141). The purpose of the study was to examine the effectiveness of in-text post-questions and concept mapping in two situations—with and without systematic instructional feedback. Five research questions were formulated:

> (1) Does feedback on post-questions increase learning achievement compared to post-questioning without feedback? (2) Does concept mapping improve achievement results compared to post-questioning, when feedback conditions are constant? (3) Does persistence in concept mapping cause initial deficits in knowledge and comprehension on on multiple-choice items? (4) Will some students choose not to participate in concept mapping, and if so, does persistance in concept mapping lead to better achievement? (5) Does combining concept mapping and post-questioning strategies lead to better achievement results? (p. 50)

The authors admitted that the "design of this study was, by necessity, compromised by the nature of the conditions under which it was run." Of the findings on each question, among the greatest differences found were between those subjects who used concept mapping strategies and those who did not. On research question 3, an early deficit was in evidence, but not confirmed by the results. In the discussion section the authors pointed out that there were differences between low and high persistence mappers, but it was unclear whether concept mapping itself resulted in higher achievement—concept mapping was only done by about half of those who had the available materials (the treatment group, as opposed to the control group).

Burns, M. L. (1988). Participative leadership made easier with Consensor: An electronic tool. *Educational Technology*, 28(4), 26-30.

Burns discusses the use of various methods of implementing participative decision-making that can be useful in educational administration. The influence of groups on individuals can be powerful and may be intimidating in settings where negative feedback may be given and received. Educational decision-making may be accomplished by group interaction if it is facilitated by tools and techniques that eliminate negative factors. Burns has suggested that the Consensor, "an electronic opinion poling [sic] system, is just such an aid to effective decision-making in groups." The system, according to Burns, was developed as a tool for administrative groups in the 1970s. Burns outlined "value assumptions" about the natureof groups and their member individuals—commitment, ownership, a holistic view, focus, immediate feedback, and neutrality.

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A 1983-84 research project was described which involved group discussions in schools. Those involved in the discussions were school staff groups, student groups, and parent groups. Each group met twice, once with and once without Consensor. Burns found that there was more broadly distributed participation in meetings with Consensor than without and greater focus on clarification of issues and questions with Consensor.

Cohen, V. B. (1985). A reexamination of feedback in computer-based instruction: Implications for instruction. *Educational Technology, 25*(1), 33-37.

In this article Cohen explores uses of feedback in computer-based instruction in order to show that not all uses are beneficial. Those which follow stimulus-response behaviorist learning theory have not necessarily contributed to effective instructional design strategies. She takes a theoretical approach and criticizes, in general, poor design and inadequate use of feedback in many CBI programs. Cohen suggests that behaviorist backgrounds of instructional designers cause them to understand the concept of feedback in the narrow operant-conditioning sense.

One school of thought, which spawned immediate feedback in CBI, was criticized for its behaviorist foundations—positive feedback simulating laboratory settings. A second school of thought, not based on operant learning theory, was that which advocated locating error. This may be more effective than the positive immediate feedback, but its effectiveness is dependent on how much information is provided. Cohen noted a controversy over immediate vs. delayed feedback—there is a distinction (Bloom) between learning at the knowledge level and working at the comprehension and application (understanding) level; and immediate feedback facilitates the former while delayed feedback enhances the latter. A distinction must also be made among learners—the high-mastery student may benefit from delay in feedback with immediate feedback being detrimental. Another factor, according to Cohen, is the type of material being learned—end-of-session feedback is an advantage in the learning of abstracts and higher-order thinking skills.

Cohen distinguished two types of feedback—that which tells the student whether an answer is right or wrong (knowledge of results) and the kind that provides information so that the student can identify error (informational feedback).

Cohen provides examples of when to use informational feedback and knowledge of results, when to use immediate versus delayed feedback, and how to design end-of-session feedback.

Connolly, F. W., Eissenberg, T. E., Hunt, N. L., & Wiseman, C. V. (1991, October). The consensor classroom and knowledge retention. *Educational Technology, 31*, 51-55.

These authors explore the conflict between the necessity for active versus passive (two-way communication as opposed to the lecture or one-way communication) and introduce a method of resolving this conflict. *Consensor*, an adaptation of Skinner's "teaching machine," is a system comprised of computer software, a set of simple 10-key keypads, and a PC. The system is instructor operated—questions are posed, and answer numbers are keyed by the students. The system uses the principle of active learning, along with the instructor's ability to monitor the comprehension-level without the voluntary and public responses of individuals.

A study was conducted using three groups of 16 students each to compare retention of material presented in three different styles: immediate/anonymous feedback lecture (*Consensor*), immediate feedback only lecture, and traditional lecture. The researchers found that the two feedback techniques resulted in knowledge retention over a longer period of time as compared with the lecture-only method. The amount of information learned (material covered) was less, however, in the feedback groups. In their overall conclusions, these authors suggested that "the use of a forced choice response technique, promoting feedback, leads to a longer retention period than the traditional lecture method." The system also avoids the necessity for professors to elicit feedback, a time-consuming task.

Friedman, H. (1988), Immediate feedback, no return test procedure for introductory courses. *Teaching of Psychology, 14*, 244.

This article is a brief discussion of a solution to several problems inherent in standard testing procedures in large lecture courses. The quick return of tests usually entails large grading tasks, class time spent on the mechanics of handing out results, lower interest and attendance for the later class meeting, and large segments of the class devoted to discussing results. Friedman offered a modification which consists of a 20 to 40 item multiple-choice test with the option of including one or two short answer questions. The test can be completed in 30 minutes and is duplicated in one or more versions on both sides of a single sheet. The test is handed out with a separate answer sheet, and students mark both sheets for each answer. They retain their marked question sheets, and a discussion of the correct answers can be conducted immediately after the answer sheets are collected. This avoids having to return tests and the rush to grade them. Feedback is immediate, and class time is not used up by the mechanics of returning tests.

Justen, III, J. E., Waldrop, P. B., & Adams, II, T. M. (1990). Effects of paired versus individual user computer-assisted instruction and type of feedback on student achievement. *Educational Technology, 30*, 51-53.

In this article the authors discussed the appropriate *delivery* of computer-assisted instruction (CAI), and provided an overview of a study in which delivery methods and type of feedback were compared for effectiveness. The research was conducted with a quasi-experimental, 2 x 2 factorial design. The criterion measure was a twenty item multiple-choice test given to all subjects. The researchers explored differences in effectiveness between paired and individual delivery methods and between minimal and extended feedback types. The results indicated no significant differences between delivery methods. A difference was found between minimal and extended feedback conditions. The authors noted that "typically these results have favored the extended feedback conditions." However, in this study a significant difference was found that favored the minimal feedback group, making this study inconsistent with the research literature. The authors said this may have been attributable to the material used in the study.

Kulik, J. A., & Kulik, C. C. (1988). Timing of feedback and verbal learning. *Review of Educational Research, 58*, 79-97.

Kulik and Kulik presented a lengthy review of previous studies on the effects of feedback timing which encompassed research done in the early part of this century. They reported that findings have been various, as have been methods. Flawed designs and differing research methods have resulted in ongoing conflict. This study is a meta-analysis which entailed finding a pool of research findings and selecting those to be included based on three basic criteria: (1) Results were in quantitative form, (2) immediate and delayed feedback had been used, and (3) all studies were retrievable from university and college libraries, ERIC, NTIS, or University Microfilms International. Of the 288 studies located, 53 met these criteria.

Variables used to describe the studies were: study type, timing of immediate feedback, timing of delayed feedback, number of different tests or lists to be learned, number of trials or times each test was taken, outcome measure, subject assignment, stimulus exposure, duration of treatment, class level, year of report, and source of the study.

Studies were identified as falling into three categories: (1) applied studies with classroom quizzes or programmed materials, (2) experiments on acquisition of test content, and (3) experiments with list learning. In applied studies, immediate feedback was usually superior to delayed feedback, but in experiments on acquisition, it was found to be inferior, and in list learning "effects of immediate feedback were moderately positive but highly varible."

The findings of this meta-analysis pointed out the relative merits of the three types of research. If applied studies are internally valid, the results may be easily generalized because of the realistic setting in which

they are conducted. It is easier, though, to maintain internal validity in a laboratory experiment. These authors concluded that immediate feedback on quizzes was beneficial and that the immediacy of feedback should also be included in designing programmed material. They cautioned that "A number of the applied studies have been criticized for their lack of experimental control."

Lee, W. T., & Zalatimo, S. (1990). Computer-assisted instruction with immediate feedback in learning to solve analogy items. ***International Journal of Instructional Media, 17*****(4), 319-329.**

These authors conducted an experimental study to investigate differences among scores of a computer-assisted instruction group, a programmed instruction text group, and a no-feedback control group. The task used analogy items as a method of gathering data. A reliability test was done to establish that there was internal consistency in the treatment tests.

The results demonstrated that instruction and feedback were effective in learning to do analogy items. It was found that delayed feedback was not more effective for learning than immediate feedback.

The authors offered several recommendations for future research to expand on and replicate this study.

McDaniel, M. A., & Fisher, R. P. (1991). Tests and test feedback as learning sources. ***Contemporary Educational Psychology, 16*****, 192-201.**

This article described two experiments. The first experiment involved using obscure facts (trivia). The hypothesis tested was that "subjects who were given an initial test with feedback...would perform better on a criterion test than subjects... not tested initially..." The second experiment examined two procedures for inducing attention to test feedback to examine the influence of the kind of processing applied to the test feedback. The format of questions was manipulated. Questions were worded either the same way or differently in the initial and criterion tests.

The findings were that "elaborative processing did not enhance later recall compared to rote rehearsal." A second finding was that "testing with feedback increased learning more than providing an additional study trial." The researchers concluded that "the mnemonic benefits of retrieval are tied to the cue that initiates later recall."

Peeck, J. B., van den Bosch, A. B., & Kreupeling, W. J. (1985). Effects of informative feedback in relation to retention of initial responses. ***Conemporary Educational Psychology, 10*****(4), 303-313.**

These authors reported on a study of feedback effects using a 900-word text followed by a multiple-choice test that had two types of questions—factual and guess. The research subjects were 97 fifth graders.

Three conditions of feedback were compared: immediately after the test, after one day, or no feedback. After a week, a retest was administered and the subjects were then asked to recall their previous responses. The feedback conditions resulted in higher scores on the initial test, but there was no difference in the subjects' ability to identify previous responses.

The results did not support those of some eariler studies showing that delayed feedback following an immediate test results in better performance. A delayed retention effect (DRE) "was equally absent" in all types of questions (factual and guess). The authors said that the importance of prior knowledge at time of feedback was supported, which fits with the idea that "conceptual conflict" is needed for learning.

Phye, G. D. (1991). Advice and feedback during cognitive training: Effects at acquisition and delayed transfer. ***Contemporary Educational Psychology, 16*****, 87-94.**

This article described a replication of a previous study. The author explained that "A transfer paradigm differs from acquisition or memory retention...[in that] cognitive transfer tasks typically require the application of previously demonstrated knowledge..." This study explored the incorporation of acquisi-

tion, memory retention, and transfer using a cognitive training and transfer paradigm. The effects of advice and feedback during training was investigated. Subjects (N=108) were randomly assigned to one of three experimental groups or a control group. Analogy problems were used in training and again in post-testing. Three types of training were conducted in the three experimental groups: (1) Training with advice given prior to the first practice session...(2) training with advice as described above plus feedback in the form of a marked answer sheet and correct solutions...(3) training involving feedback as described above during the study periods following practice sessions.

Phye, G. D., & Bender, T. (1989). Feedback complexity and practice: Response pattern analysis in retention and transfer. ***Contemporary Educational Psychology, 14,*** **97-110.**

This article describes a study in which 120 college-age subjects practiced 40 difficult vocabulary items in four experiments. Experiment 1 was comprised of two studies: (1) the dependent varible was memory retention, and (2) the dependent varible was transfer. Subjects in study 1 received different levels of immediate feedback, than took a post-test identical to the pretest. In study 2, the subjects received a transfer task, rather than a memory retention task, in the post-test.

In experiment 2, there were also 2 studies. The first treatment was identical to that in study 1 of experiment 1 except that the memory retention post-test was given 5 days following immediate feedback rather than right after immediate feedback. In study 2 of experiment 2, the methods, materials, and procedures were like those in study 2 experiment 1, but the post-test was delayed five days following feedback.

It was found that "The significant impact of immediate feedback was observed not only in terms of immediate post-test performance but also for delayed post-test performance." The complexity of feedback during practice was not a significant factor.

Sales, G. C., & Williams, M. D. (1988, Fall). The effect of adaptive control of feedback in computer-based instruction. ***Journal of Research on Computing in Education, 21,*** **97-111.**

This article was a report of a study which examined the uniting of two loci of control in computer-based instruction. The authors described the two loci usually available as learner control and program control. The third strategy is shared or adaptive control. Types of feedback are described as motivational (rewards) and informational (correction and elaboration). The authors contended that different levels of feedback should be suited to the needs of learners and to desired learning outcomes.

The study was performed using college students who where initially given the Kolb Learning Style Inventory and grouped according to their self-reported learning style preference. Three treatment conditions were used with the difference being in the presentation of feedback: Late Adaptive Control (LAC), Early Adaptive Control (EAC), and Program Control (PC). In the LAC treatment, subjects selected desired feedback from a menu with the following choices: no feedback, knowledge of results, knowledge of correct response, and elaborative feedback.

The findings were that the three treatment manipulations of feedback presentations did not have a significant effect on learner achievement. Students elected elaborative feedback most frequently, so it was impossible to make a comparison between elaborative and other types of feedback. Such a comparison should be undertaken in another study. The authors suggested that further research with larger numbers and diverse populations is needed to determine whether the individual learning styles make a difference in feedback type selection.

Schroth, M. L. (1992). The effects of delay of feedback on a delayed concept formation transfer task. ***Contemporary Educational Psychology, 17*****(1), 78-82.**

Schroth cited renewed interest in transfer of learning and discussed the effects of delay of feedback on concept formation trans-

fer. His study was conducted using 192 introductory psychology students as experimental subjects. Each subject was tested individually with varibles being the feedback immediacy or delay and the type of feedback (nothing-wrong, right-nothing, or right-wrong). The major findings were: (1) Delay of feedback slowed speed of learning initially, but it had positive effects on transfer; (2) right-wrong feedback was the most effective for concept identification on the first task, and the nothing-wrong condition was better than right-nothing; and (3) type of feedback made no difference in the transfer task—delayed retention effect (DRE).

Smith, R. A., & Wight, R. (1988). Student evaluation of Friedman's immediate feedback, no return test procedure for introductory psychology. ***Teaching of Psychology, 15***(4), 209-210.

Smith and Wight conducted an assessment of Friedman's no return test procedure by using it in three sections of an introductory psychology course (N=97). The end-of-course evaluation included four questions about the procedure. Students rated the test procedure on a scale from 1 (poor) to 10 (great). The mean rating was 9.69. Students were given an opportunity to write comments, and some of them indicated that they liked getting immediate results and that it helped them learn. Another evaluation item asked the students to rank the immediate test review against having it one or two weeks later. 8.64 was the mean rating on a scale in which 10 represented preferring it much more. On a similarly ranked item, students indicated their belief that they learned more from immediate review than a later review. The mean was 9.09 for the positive response.

Kenneth A. Thompson, Ed.D., received his B.S. and M.S. degrees in education from Southern Illinois University at Carbondale and his doctorate in education from Columbia Southern University in Alabama. Following his retirement from the United States Army in 1992 with the rank of Lieutenant Colonel, Dr. Thompson became a training consultant for private industrial concerns, specializing in organizational structuring and employee development. He has authored numerous journal articles on adult education and workforce development, and serves as an adjunct facility member with several universities, both in the United States and abroad. In addition to his teaching and consulting activities, Dr. Thompson has continued his research in the areas of curriculum development, distance learning, and alternative learning environments. Dr. Thompson currently resides in Staunton, Illinois.

Is Notetaking Directly Related to Academic Success?

Among the study skills commonly associated with academic success is the ability to take thorough and accurate lecture notes. Rarely, however, is this skill taught explicitly in the college or university classroom; students must develop it on their own and often efforts prove unsuccessful. Three recent studies highlighted below provide important findings examining the relationship between lecture note adequacy and course performance.

By Lynne Kuhn

Baker and Lombardi (1985) empirically examined the relationship between quantitative and qualitative aspects of students' lecture notes and test performance by analyzing lecture notes taken during a specially constructed (yet otherwise typical) class lecture. They found that most students included in their notes less than 25% of the propositions judged worthy of inclusion, and approximately 50% of the targeted main ideas. The analysis revealed that only 3% of the students included any mention of instructor-provided examples, and only 29% of the students noted the logical relations between ideas. The total amount of information included in students' lecture notes was related to their test performance (i.e., the correlation between test score and total number of propositions contained in students' notes was r=.35); the authors noted that, "Although students were able to answer many of the test questions without having recorded the relevent information in their notes, they rarely answered the questions incorrectly if the information was present in their notes." The authors also reported that all information presented to the class using overhead transparencies was noted by every student; unfortunately, only 27% of the additional information judged to be important by the instructor, but not included on transparencies, found its way into students' notes.

Kiewra (1983) quantitatively analyzed students' notes with respect to the total number of distinct points recorded during lectures over a four week period. The number of points recorded in students' notes were correlated with both a course examination and with students' final course grades. The data revealed that when information was correctly contained in students' notes, it was remembered 78% of the time; when the information was omitted from students' notes, it was remembered only 34% of the time. Kiewra also reported that notetaking correlated significantly with final course grades (r=.86).

Einstein, Morris, and Smith (1985), in two laboratory experiments, tested directly the effects of notetaking on the recall of information varying in relative importance to the lecture. They were particularly interested in assessing the relationship between student memory of a lecture and the content of the students' notes. In the first study it was found that compared to students who listened to a ten minute videotaped lecture, students who took notes on the lecture (but who could not review these notes afterward) were able to remember significantly more of the material judged to be of high importance; the two groups did not differ in their ability to recall information of medium to low importance. This difference suggests that notetaking serves an important "encoding function" by promoting increased attention, more elaborative processing of individual ideas, and greater organization of lecture material. The authors also reported that students recalled significantly more information appearing in their notes than that which was not noted; students recalled 44% of the propositions appearing in their notes and only 6% of the

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propositions not recorded in their notes. In the second experiment, successful students (i.e., having GPAs greater than 2.53) were compared with less successful students (i.e., having GPAs less than 2.53) in terms of the notes they took and their ability to recall this material. Successful students recorded significantly more material in their notes and a significantly greater percentage of the high-importance material; this group also scored significantly higher on a recall test than did less successful students. For both groups of students, however, recall scores were closely related to the contents of their notes.

The findings of these three studies have important instructional implications; a real need for more direct information in notetaking skills, (not just for the "remedial" student but for the majority of college students) is the most obvious. Overall, faculty need to be aware of and develop strategies which will help students differentiate, within a lecture, the important information from the less important. The following suggestions are offered to assist in this pursuit:

- Utilize a variety of vocal qualities (i.e., loudness, pitch, stress, and temporal characteristics) to help students distinguish main points from minor details.
- Remind students that you use paraphrasing and repetitions to highlight key points; instruct them to record in their notes the examples you provide.
- Utilize audio-visual aids, blackboards and overhead projectors, to identify vital information; this they already know to write down (remind them, however, that these points are not the only things worth noting).
- Distribute written handouts to summarize difficult lectures or provide study guide questions which encompass the lecture's main ideas.
- Provide students ample time for recording a full complete set of notes.

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Staff Development, Quest for Quality, Higher Education as a Business, and Performance Excellence

The following book reviews involve titles of interest to professional development practitioners.

Staff Development

***Understanding Staff Development*, by Graham Webb (1996). Bristol, PA: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press, 124 pp. $32.00**

Reviewed by Mimi Wolverton

Graham Webb, in *Understanding Staff Development*, sets out to challenge what he sees as a "preoccupation [on the part] of staff developers with the practical." He, instead, wishes to reflectively examine the field of staff development. Webb, a staff developer in New Zealand, begins by limiting his definition of staff development to faculty improvement. Within this arena, he describes current practice as technocratic—meaning that staff developers, as experts, prescribe clear, concise, skill-related remedies to faculty quandaries in fairly impersonal ways. The mechanisms commonly used include workshops, seminars, symposia and consultations on teaching. In contrast to this mechanistic, quick-fix approach, he suggests that staff developers, as professionals, enter into relationships with faculty that facilitate individual personal growth. He claims that he is not trying to build a specific theoretical model for staff development but instead seeks to validate the profession by anchoring (and broadening) it in philosophically grounded discourse. In doing so, he hopes to "paint humanity back into the staff development picture."

Webb roots the landscape for this picture in rationalism. He begins with a good, clear discussion of positivism, its origins, what it entails, its critics, its evolution and its implications for staff development. This, he says, is the relevant theory of the day. In fact, Webb claims that it serves as the basis for the advise that developers give practitioners as to how their students learn and how they might teach them. Based on concerns raised by critics of positivism, Webb moves his discussion of staff development to a more humanistic, relational level.

Here, the discussion revolves around the hermeneutic method. Under this view, a staff developer identifies his/her prejudices and holds them up to scrutiny. For these reflective practitioners, experience carries more importance than it does for technical experts who function under the positivist model. The hermeneutic staff developer moves beyond the skill or technical level of advising to seek understanding of the underlying personal reasons for problems that faculty experience in the classroom. For instance, a humanistic staff developer might ask, Does a poor lecturer lack the requisite skills or is he/she simply afraid to speak in front of large groups? The first requires technical advise, the second—personal. The major shortcoming of the hermeneutical perspective stems from its lack of concern for power issues, and its followers' failure to recognize that we are not "all equally empowered or equally invited," especially in terms of class, gender and race/ethnicity.

Philosophically, this inattentiveness to power arrangements pushes Webb's dialogue into the realm of critical theory and, in par-

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ticular, action research, which advocates change for societal betterment. Although critical theory espouses empowerment for all, Webb finds little assurance that "the interests of all are not [merely] the interests of the most powerful" and the best informed group or individual. In terms of staff development, this suggests that developers may still hold sway over the interchanges that take place with faculty and that the same holds true for classroom encounters between faculty and students.

At this point, Webb draws a distinction between modernity—the search for universal truth through rational inquiry—and postmodernity, which he describes as the rejection of the grand narrative. Here, he comes back to what he considers staff development's missing ingredient, the human aspect. To complete his argument for its inclusion, Webb differentiates between structuralism, where value and meaning derive from an element's place within an organization, and post-structuralism, in particular phenomenography. Through phenomenography, researchers discover the ways in which people experience and understand the world around them. In the end, Webb suggests that staff development must remain flexible and its approaches contingent on the individuals who seek advise. To him, staff developers should "develop relationships from the hermeneutical perspective of shared human understanding (collaboratively) while realizing that this does not put an end to issues of power and inequality." In working with teachers to improve teaching, staff developers must "hear [the teachers] and appreciate their perspectives."

Webb's contention throughout the book is that staff developers have not lived up to the expectations that at least he holds for members of the profession. He chastises them (including himself) for not taking people and conversations with people seriously and accuses professionals of "regarding these considerations as secondary to our development message." He makes three specific recommendations for the improvement of the profession—the creation of a support system that focuses specifically on the development/counseling relationship, credentialing of staff developers (similar to, but more flexible than, the UK system), and greater familiarity of the profession's members with the research that undergirds their advise. Interestingly, although Webb frames his discourse in terms of the profession as an institution, his final, and perhaps most telling, recommendation—that practitioners "must consider the diverse paths by which [staff developers] might improve the content of their character"—is very personal.

Understanding Staff Development is not light reading. As the philosophical discussion deepens, the link between theory and practice becomes progressively less explicit. The author ties positivism most clearly to the profession but favors the philosophical underpinnings of hermeneutics. In making his case for a more humanistic or connected approach to staff development, Webb tends to downplay the potentially positive role that technical solutions may play in staff development—fulfilling the need and, in some cases, desire for technical assistance rather than for personal consultation.

Webb targets "educational and staff developers in higher education, educators in general, and staff developers and trainers outside education" as his audience. The title, *Understanding Staff Development*, may even entice practitioners to pick up the book, but my guess is that these people will be too busy to devote enough time to this book to do it justice. It seems to me that a more appropriate readership might be academic researchers and graduate students, studying staff development or research theory in general, who can take the time to digest and ponder *Understanding Staff Development's* philosophical implications. For instance, I refer students in my graduate-level, policy analysis seminar to Webb's critique, in Chapter 4, of Carr and Kemmis's *Becoming Critical* as a counter balance to their discussion of action research. If, indeed, the target audience is different from the one originally intended, a more descriptive title for the book might be *Building a Philosophical Foundation for Staff Development*.

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Quest for Quality

***Teachers Can be Fired! The Quest for Quality*, by Hans A. Andrews; Chicago: Catfeet Press, 1995, 270 pp.**

Reviewed by Benjamin Baez

As Dr. Hans Andrews demonstrates in *Teachers Can be Fired!*, evaluating quality teaching is an important issue. There appears to be growing public dissatisfaction with education at all levels, and the problems with education are often tied to poor teaching. Dr. Andrews, who has 30 years experience in faculty evaluation, argues that Total Quality Management (TQM) principles should be applied to classroom instruction to improve the quality of teaching at elementary and secondary schools and community colleges.

The salient themes of this book are: teachers will support fair and objective evaluation, teachers should be allowed to improve, post-tenure review is important, and ultimately ineffective teachers should be dismissed. Dr. Andrews discusses the importance of having an administrative evaluation program that includes: local definition of effective teaching, teachers' support, faculty input, opportunity for improvement, multiple evaluations using a variety of methods, merit recognition, evaluation of all teachers, training of evaluators, well-thought-out board policies, extensive documentation, "notice to remedy," and dismissals of ineffective teachers.

This book's strengths are that it stresses the importance of faculty development and provides an extensive literature review of the subject. Dr. Andrews also provides a variety of methods to get his points across (e.g., forms, interviews, case studies, sample letters), and he offers suggested exercises at the end of each chapter. Dr. Andrews correctly stresses that no policy or procedure will be effective without skillful administrators who have teaching experience.

I have some concerns with this book. First, it assumes that schools are rational organizations. Birnbaum (1988), however, points out that colleges are much more complex. They are too unlike businesses for management principles—such as TQM—to work effectively with faculty. Although pre-collegiate institutions and community colleges may be more hierarchically structured and their management more rational than liberal arts colleges, this may not be the case at all such institutions (or even at all departments within these institutions).

This book also ignores nontraditional teaching practices. Dr. Andrews' evaluation framework may be useful for evaluating traditional approaches to teaching (i.e., teacher-centered, emphasizing lecture, and following the syllabus). Many teachers, however, use teaching methods that are student-centered, involve students in the teaching processes, emphasize collaborative learning, and help students understand that knowledge is not the exclusive property of the teacher (Haworth & Conrad, 1990).

Dr. Andrews' examples all focus on traditional teaching. In Chapter Four, his definition of effective teaching focuses in large part on the organization, content, and presentation of the lecture. While his criteria might get at effective traditional teaching, they may not address nontraditional teaching. Since this was not clear, I was left wondering how this type of teaching should be evaluated. How, for example, does one evaluate a teacher who lectures little but whose students learn through collaborative projects?

The discussion of the weaknesses of student evaluations (in Chapter Two) does not also address their strengths. In citing Centra's 1979 work—but not the more current (1993) update—Dr. Andrews points out only the limitations of student evaluations. Centra (1993), however, indicates that student evaluations can be reliable and valid if there are enough students in the sample, and if teachers are motivated to improve.

In Chapter Seven, Dr. Andrews claims that formative and summative evaluation can be seen as a continuum, if the primary objective is to help the teacher improve. While this point has merit, I question whether such a program should be called formative. Also, referring to any evaluation as formative which involves administrators who also make summative decisions is problematic. Centra (1993) indicates that formative evaluation should only be used for improvement, and administrators who make

summative evaluations should not be involved in such evaluation.

Dr. Andrews' discussion of the legal implications of faculty evaluation is poor. He explains that the cases in which governing boards prevailed indicate that courts upheld the dismissal of incompetent teachers. But courts often do not address the substance of teachers' claims, focusing instead on the procedures used by schools (LaNoue & Lee, 1987). Because institutions prevail does not mean that courts validated the administrators' practices; it may mean that the procedures used in the dismissals were not illegal. If anything, these cases indicate that courts give extensive discretion to institutions, even in situations where administrators engaged in unfair practices.

Dr. Andrews' analysis of the case law is incomplete or inaccurate. He rarely provides enough foundation for the legal principles used, which is a problem if the intended audience is administrators with no legal training. Dr. Andrews, for example, does not address the nature of "property interest," "liberty interest," and "due process" (e.g., these are Fourteenth Amendment rights); how these rights are acquired (e.g., by contract or state law); or what the consequences to the institution are if these rights are violated (e.g., a hearing, back pay, punitive damages, or reinstatement).

In some cases, the decision of the court was misinterpreted. For example, in his discussion of *Board of Regents v. Roth*, Dr. Andrews states: "it was determined by the court that *no property interest rights* exist for nontenured teachers" (p. 164). This is not an accurate reading of this case. Untenured teachers at public institutions have property interests, and due process rights, *while their contracts are in effect* (see Baez and Centra, 1995). Furthermore, untenured teachers must be given due process if they are charged with misconduct (e.g., immorality) that potentially imposes on them a stigma, such that they would find it difficult to find other employment.

Dr. Andrews' discussion of some cases was careless. For example, he failed to mention in discussing the *Katz* case (p. 165) than no board can dismiss a teacher for exercising legitimate first amendment rights. And in discussing *McConnell v. Howard University* (in Appendix A) as authority supporting boards' discretion to dismiss teachers for neglecting their duties, he failed to mention that this case was reversed on appeal because the institution failed to consider the circumstances surrounding the teacher's actions.

This book is useful for administrators with very little experience in faculty evaluation. It provides examples of simple policies and procedures that help administrators evaluate traditional teaching practices. This book, however, will be of little use to experienced administrator, administrators in complex, non-rational institutions, and administrators evaluating nontraditional teaching practices.

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Higher Education as a Business

***Managing Higher Education as a Business*, by Robert L. Lenington. Phoenix, AZ: Oryx Press, 1996, x + 190 pages, $29.95.**

Reviewed by Mary Ann Heverly

In *Managing Higher Education as a Business*, Robert Lenington draws on his experience in both business and higher education to describe organizational and management practices that, if borrowed from the corporate world, would improve the management of higher education. The Foreword to the book clearly states that the material in the book draws on the author's opinions, based on his extensive experience in management, particularly in financial management. Even though the book is not intended to provide a research-based look at managing institutions of higher education, a bibliography of sources is provided as an appendix, and it contains many useful references. In the author's own words, "This book was developed to provide a financial/management overview of the industry known as higher education" (ix).

The book begins with a background chapter that focuses on factors that have contributed to the increased cost of higher education in recent years. Part II, "Organization and Management," describes the roles of the Board of Trustees and the CEO, comparing and contrasting higher education with business and industry. Also covered are the criteria for effectiveness in these roles, common organizational structures, and the role of other senior executives in higher education.

Part III, "Strategic Overview," begins with an outline of the importance of strategic planning and the key steps to its successful implementation. The outline is focused at the macro level—readers needing information on exactly how to proceed or what pitfalls to avoid should look elsewhere for this particular type of information. Part III continues with more specific chapters on "The Operating Budget" and "Costing and Pricing." Of particular value is Lenington's focus on the critical link that should exist between budgeting and planning, and on the critical link to the marketing function. The costing/pricing chapter contains a valuable discussion of costing and the difficulties encountered in the higher education setting.

Part IV, "Revenue Sources" begins with an overview of the primary sources of revenue in higher education (tuition, auxiliary enterprises). The next chapter focuses on fund-raising and grants. The distinctions between higher education and business/industry are given attention here, and tactics for success in these activities are recommended. Part IV concludes with a chapter on investment management. Parallels and differences between higher education and the business sector are pointed out by the author.

Part V, "Major Expenditure Areas," covers administration, academics/faculty, physical plant, and financial aid/other subsidies. The chapter on administration examines the reasons underlying recent escalation of costs and different approaches commonly taken to contain costs. The chapter on academics/faculty also pays attention to various ways colleges have tried to hold the line on cost escalation. The physical plant chapter focuses on optimum ways to approach planning, use, and management of these resources. The final chapter in this section, on financial aid and other subsidies, again points out the necessary ties between this topic and planning. Emphasis is also given to the topic of tuition discounting—its uses, applications, potential dangers.

In addition to the bibliography at the end of the book, the individual chapters provide short lists of suggested readings on the topics addressed in each chapter. These lists are especially important in a book of this type, which aims to provide a broad overview of many of the topics addressed.

The last part of the book is titled "Conclusions and Predictions," but its nature is better suggested by the title of its sole chapter: Potpourri. Part of the chapter reiterates key points made earlier in the book and another part of the chapter is a verbatim transcription of a speech the author gave on TQM and higher education. It seems odd that the transcript was not reworked slightly to make it better fit with the flow of presentation in the body of the book. The final part of the chapter is a list of conclusions and predictions. It may have been intended as a hodgepodge, but given the chapter's title, readers may be disappointed if they are expecting a summing-up, tying together, and integrating of the material that preceded it.

The book is intended for a variety of senior level managers at colleges and universities. It is specially targeted to members of boards of trustees, and it seems to be accurate in striking that target. It keeps the focus at

the appropriate "macro" level that would be of interest to board members, with forays into more specific detail where board members are most likely to want more detail.

Mary Ann Heverly is the Director of Institutional Research at Delaware County Community College, Media, Pennsylvania.

Performance Excellence

***Achieving Performance Excellence in University Administration: A Team Approach to Organizational Change and Employee Development*, by Manuel London, Westport, CT: Praeger, 1995, +260 pp. $59.95.**

Reviewed by Edward P. St. John

Higher education has entered a new period of financial crisis, one ignited more by growing distrust by students and taxpayers than by declines in demand. Indeed, it is a bit ironic that we are facing a new financial crisis at the precise time that we are also experiencing an increase in demand. Given this ironic and potentially perplexing situation, many in college and university leadership have responded to these new conditions by entering a new wave of strategic planning and restructuring. In *Achieving Performance Excellence in University Administration: A Team Approach to Organizational Change and Employee Development*, Manuel London has provided a framework that human resource managers can use to integrate their role with this new wave of institutional strategies.

London's book has four parts. In Part I he provides a discussion of how the planning environment is changing in universities (chapter 1). He also considers the implications of these changes for leadership roles in the university (chapter 2), focusing on how the executive role has changed as a result of the new stresses in universities. Then he considers the role human resource managers can play as change agents in support of universities making difficult transitions (chapter 3). The major strength of this section is that it defines some clear ways in which human resource managers can be involved.

His basic premises seem to be: 1) that new waves of downsizing and restructuring are ahead in higher education; and 2) "that resource managers should participate in the forum of top officers in managing the university" (p. 53). Indeed, the text seems to be written by a veteran of downsizing battles. The weakness of this point of view may be the assumption that downsizing is to be expected, especially given that a new wave of expansion is forecast for higher education.

In Part II, London lays out the two basic mechanisms of the new strategic environment—goal setting (chapter 4) and strategic management (chapter 5)—and considers how human resource management can be integrated into these processes. This section provides a window on the newest wave of strategic thinking in higher education, one that contends with complex productivity improvement issues. For human resource managers who are not familiar with these issues this second part of the book would serve as a good introduction.

Then, in Part III, London integrates the human resources function into the new quest for excellence in higher education. He has chapters on promoting effectiveness (chapter 6) and assessing quality service (chapter 7). This section begins to expose some of the limitations of the new wave of restructuring, although perhaps unwittingly. By taking a seat at the new strategy table, human resource managers are faced with a dilemma: when they assume a role in setting the course of the university, they become partners in a process that could be the antithesis of the human development principles that underlie human resource management as a field. London attempts to reconcile this dilemma by making arguments like the following: "control functions don't have to be rigid guards of bureaucratic regulations but can be promoters of organizational analysis and continuous learning" (103).

Certainly this is one way through the bind, however, this strategic approach tends to ignore the need for creating incentives to promote productive behavior. Instead, the strategic approach assumes central control of decisions. Indeed, the strategic planning era, ushered in by Keller's *Academic Strategy*, reversed historical patterns of decentralized

academic decision-making. London carries forward this premise, arguing that human resource managers need to be part of the "forum of top officers" (p. 53). I wonder if by arguing that the human resource manager should be at the policy table, London hasn't lost sight of the fact that all members of university communities need to have a feeling that they can influence their own fate.

In the final section, London addresses key processes related to supporting this new vision of strategy in academe. He considers team building (chapter 8), human resource development (chapter 9), performance appraisal and feedback (chapter 10), managing employee problems (chapter 11), creating a culture to support continuous learning and improvement (chapter 12). London provides a well developed treatment of human resource strategies in this new environment. This section provides the real substance of the book, communicating a process view of human resource management that is highly compatible with the new strategic environment in universities.

Thus, London has provided a good primer for human resource managers who have been caught off guard by the new wave of restructuring. Indeed, it is troubling that "downsizing" is a catch word of the 1990s, a time when demand should be growing again. My criticisms of the book have more to do with the limitations of this new strategic vision of university management than with the argument that human resource managers are adapting to it. Indeed, London is to be congratulated for having provided a useful guide to practitioners. The alternative to this new wave of centrally-controlled designed restructuring has gone untested. That is, "encouraging meaningful productivity improvement by changing the financial incentive structure within colleges and universities" (St. John, 1995, p. 35). In my own view we need to think more openly and critically about the incentive structures for students, faculty, and staff (St. John, 1994, 1995). Given that we should now be in the midst of a new era of growth at least according to demographic trends, I think that more creative thought is desperately needed.

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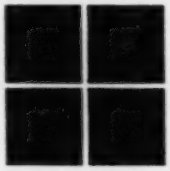

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